

# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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## Editor's Page

### SUMMER HOMEWORK

**D**URING THE past fifty years our educational system as a whole has been changing at an increasingly rapid rate. In part, these changes are an inevitable response to the changing social order. In part, they are the result of a philosophy of life and education known by various names, of which "progressive education" is perhaps the most widely known and "experimentalism" probably the most definite and descriptive. The outstanding exponent of this philosophy has, of course, been John Dewey, although many other American educators have helped to formulate and clarify its underlying theories and practices. In recent years an increasing number of teachers have learned to respond to such ideas as "education is growth," "education is life," "education is its own end," and "education should develop freedom and initiative in the individual." It all seemed so clear and reasonable, this experimental philosophy of education; it was consistent with the democratic faith in the dignity of the individual; it was supported in certain of its aspects by educational psychologists who demonstrated that "the most effective learning occurs when learning is the means of satisfying some want."

As a result of this philosophy, of the growing knowledge of the nature of the learning process, and of the demands of a bewilderingly complex social order, the social studies have been more or less revolutionized. Many educators have seen a blinding light, been converted, and become zealots, revolutionists, filled with a burning desire to eradicate "traditional subject matter" (often a vague term they used to cover everything they did not like or did not understand) and to build in its place a "creative" program of education, based on the "needs and interests of the child" and operating in a "rich, experience-centered, school-community setting."

Few would deny that, at least in our better schools, we have made substantial progress in the social studies. But all would readily admit that we are the victims of a great and growing confusion. We are suffering from intellectual indigestion, the result, if we may say so, of gulping our food too quickly.

There is, of course, an obvious corrective for this situation. Each of us can, if he wishes, re-examine the premises upon which he has constructed his course of study or his educational program. More to the point, we can take part of the summer months when, for most of us, the demands of the daily routine are less imperious and exacting, to restudy the educational philosophy that has been so influential in reshaping the social studies. Among the many books that might profitably be re-read are John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (1916); John L. Childs, *Education and the Philosophy of Experimentalism* (1931); and the recently published, highly provocative volume by Theodore Brameld, *Ends and Means in Education: A Mid-Century Appraisal* (1950).

One of the pressing issues that concerns all of us is the place of history and other "content" courses in a social studies program that has become as broad as life itself. Faced with this issue, far too many "educators" have exhibited an appalling lack of responsibility, taking the easy way out by discarding the troublesome subject matter instead of undertaking the difficult task of reorganizing it in a more meaningful form. Writing in 1931, Dr. Childs, himself a vigorous exponent of "progressive education," foresaw that this would be one of the "crucial problems" of social education. "Our education is less than adequate if it does not develop individuals equipped with sufficient insight into present social tendencies to enable them to frame far-reaching purposes with regard to those tendencies. No mumbling that 'education is its own end' or that we must follow the initiative of children can excuse us if, through the indulgence of superficial interests of children, we fail to lead them to a realistic understanding of themselves and the nature of the world in which they live." John Dewey has repeatedly warned against this same danger.

Half-digested knowledge is a dangerous thing. If more of us took the time to examine critically the faiths by which we profess to live and the ends toward which we claim to be moving, some, at least, of our current confusion might disappear.

LEWIS PAUL TODD

# New Perspectives in American Negro History

John Hope Franklin

SEVERAL factors have operated in the last century to stimulate an interest in the history of the Negro. The many questions related to the problem of the Negro's future in the United States have served to direct some historians toward a study of the Negro's past with a view to assessing his chances for assimilation as a freedman and a citizen. Those persons interested in demonstrating the Negro's lack of capacity to become a first-class citizen have sought proof in those pages of history where the Negro's role and status suggest an inability to assimilate. Those interested in seeing the Negro enjoy a larger share of the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship have looked into the past to find evidences of his capacity to bear these privileges and responsibilities. The movement calling for a reconsideration of the method of historical study and writing, moreover, has sent scholars in search of new problems on which they could test the validity of their new techniques; and many have chosen the subject of the Negro as their laboratory. The result has been that increasing attention has been given to the history of the American Negro in the last two generations.

## DISTORTION AND MISREPRESENTATION

FEW students have been more industrious in the study of the Negro's past than those who use history as a means to place the Negro in a position where his claims for consideration as a citizen appear invalid. They have written more about slave docility than about rebellion; more about loyal Negroes during the Civil War than

about their desertion of the plantation during that period; and more about their political shortcomings than about their efforts to bring some measure of democracy to the South during the Reconstruction period. The efforts of these students have resulted in a considerable amount of distortion and misrepresentation of the history of the Negro in the United States.

Some Negroes and their sympathetic white friends have seemed, at times, more interested in stimulating pride than in describing in adequate terms the whole story of the Negro and analyzing fully and assessing properly the forces that affect Negro life as well as that of the larger community. They have tended to write rather immodestly about those phases of the Negro's past in which he has been outstanding and in which he has demonstrated a remarkable amount of strength and talent. These writers have told of the Negro's gallantry in times of crisis and war, but have had little to say about his moments of indifference or disinterestedness; they have told of his gifts of song, but have given little attention to his moments of despair; they have told of his great fortitude, but have omitted to describe evidences of weaknesses. In failing to relate the history of the Negro, good or bad, to the life of the larger community to which it is inextricably woven, many of these historians have given a vapid and unrealistic picture of the history of the Negro in the United States.

AS the modern school of historiography developed, students trained in the new scientific methods began to study the history of the Negro because they saw the many opportunities that such efforts could open for the study of the history of various ethnic and cultural groups. Theoretically, they were committed to the principles of accuracy, dispassion, and definitiveness. They were committed to obey the admonition of the great Ranke who had told his students to write history "as it actually happened." But many of them were no more removed from the

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We are indebted to a professor of history at Howard University (Washington, D.C.) for this analysis of the writing of American Negro history. This article was originally presented as a paper at the annual convention of the National Council for the Social Studies in Baltimore. Dr. Franklin is the author of *From Slavery to Freedom: A History of American Negroes*.

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tensions that characterized race relations in the United States than the great master had been removed from the fierce nationalism that was sweeping over Germany during his time. Some, of course, succeeded more than others in casting off the emotional and distracting influences of their environment; but few were able to show in their writings on the Negro that they had achieved the objectivity that was so vigorously urged by the teachers of the new historical methods.

The history of the Negro in the United States has, therefore, not suffered with respect to the amount of attention that has been given to it in recent years. Indeed, it might be argued with some success that the Negro's past has been industriously examined and that the quantity of output on the subject has been more than adequate. There are indications, moreover, that the quantity is ever increasing. A cursory glance at lists of research in progress, book lists, and titles of articles in periodicals will convince one that the history of the American Negro is one of the liveliest topics for research and study today. That is not to say, however, that the subject is being adequately or satisfactorily handled. One could wish that the quality of output had kept pace with the quantity; but such is frankly not the case. In recent years there have been evidences of racism in historical works dealing directly or indirectly with the Negro. Two years ago a widely-known and highly respected historian was still writing about "Negro emotions," and Negro cleanliness, or the lack of it. In recent months a reviewer excoriated an author who failed to include, in his history of the Negro, a list of Negro "firsts." Recently, an able historian made sweeping generalizations about the capacities of Negroes in politics. The racist historian seemed not to realize that he was far behind the times in speaking of Negro emotions. The critic of the historian of the Negro seemed not to realize that "Negro firsts" do not constitute the history of a people. The political historian seemed not to realize that Negroes in politics have patterns of behavior that are as varied as they are among other groups.

Distortion and misrepresentation of any group's history are serious enough when confined to general literature for scholars and laymen. But irreparable damage is done when these practices are carried over into the writing of textbooks for our schools and in the teaching of our children. There is always a considerable lag

in time between the discovery of new truths and the diffusion of them into the ordinary educative process. The lag is extended in no small degree when the new truths involve the status of peoples, human relations, and social problems that are rooted in emotions. Although the diligent researches and writings of objective historians have provided materials that justify a greater recognition of the Negro's role in American history, there has been no widespread use of these materials in the classrooms and in the textbooks that are used. After an exhaustive study of the American history textbooks used in the South, Professor L. D. Reddick<sup>1</sup> found, in 1934, that the vast majority of them treated the Negro as a happy, docile slave, a shiftless, vicious freedman, and that at long last the South had been rescued from "Negro rule." Writing in 1941, Mrs. Marie E. Carpenter in her study, *The Treatment of the Negro in American History School Textbooks*,<sup>2</sup> found that few authors made any reference to Negroes other than as slaves or menial servants. She observed that the writers of textbooks for American history courses give almost no attention to the role of the Negro in the history of the United States since Reconstruction.

#### IMPROVEMENT IN TEXTBOOK TREATMENT

THERE is reason to believe that the situation with respect to textbooks in American history is improving steadily. The number of works that deal more extensively and more realistically with the history of the Negro is increasing. A comparison of the textbooks used in the nineteen-forties with those used in the nineteen-thirties reveals this improvement. The space given to a treatment of the various phases of Negro life and history has increased. A broader view of certain periods of history has resulted in a fairer and more adequate treatment of the Negro. More and more, for example, the period of Reconstruction is viewed as a national phenomenon and the Negro appears not only as a social problem but as a group which has extremely difficult problems of its own. There seems to be, moreover, a greater inclination on the part of some authors to draw the Negro into the general stream of American life and to recognize the fact that he

<sup>1</sup> Reddick, L. D. "Race Attitudes in American History Textbooks of the South." *Journal of Negro History* 19: 225-26; July 1934.

<sup>2</sup> Carpenter, Marie E. *The Treatment of the Negro in American History School Textbooks*, Menasha, Wisconsin: Geo. Banta Publishing Co., 1941.

affects, and is affected by, the forces at work that shape the history of the entire nation.

The struggle in behalf of a more adequate treatment of the Negro in the history of the United States has been carried on in recent years by a growing group of scholars who recognize the injustices that have been done in the past. They have sought to offset the claims that the Negro's history shows that he was docile, dishonest, inferior, incapable of assimilation, and wholly irresponsible. The struggle has been most arduous, for racism in our writing of history has preserved almost all the outmoded and erroneous conceptions of the Negro, and it has tied the Negro to the history of the United States as an unpleasant afterthought. Objective scholars have long since realized that there needs to be an application of the principles of scientific, non-polemical inquiry to the study of the history of the Negro. In pursuing this goal, they have worked in such a manner as to emphasize new approaches—new perspectives—in the study and writing of the Negro's history.

#### NEW PERSPECTIVES

**A** MOST important perspective, which is not new but is enjoying a much greater popularity, is the application of the principle of objectivity to the history of the American Negro. The objective approach seems to involve the acceptance of the incontrovertible findings of the related social sciences that have invalidated the extravagant claims of pseudo-social scientists regarding inherent racial traits. It also involves the acceptance of the view, widely held and successfully applied in other areas, of the tremendous influence of environmental factors—political, social, economic, and geographical—in the history of any group. The application of the principles of objectivity would lead to an honest attempt to know and to understand all the factors and forces that have had a part in shaping the history of a people and to a willingness to take these into consideration in the study and writing of that history. In such an approach there could be no omission of significant facts or factors merely because they do not fit into a preconceived pattern; and there could be none other than an honest evaluation of these factors as they have affected the history of the group.

Closely related to the principle of objectivity is the policy of avoiding hasty and sweeping generalizations. Too often our writers and students have yielded to the temptation to generalize on the basis of quite limited information and

have, thus, established a set of stereotypes that not only were inaccurate and invalid, but that did much harm to any effort to make an honest attempt to understand the problems surrounding our largest minority group. All Negroes are not lazy, nor do they all pick cotton; but a novice would have difficulty in avoiding that generalization if he studied the average secondary textbook in American history. The new perspective involves the realization that Negroes are varied just as their background, experiences, and other factors that make up their total personalities are varied. The new perspective rejects the notion that one can study one—or a hundred Negroes—and establish valid generalities on the basis of that cursory study. It rejects the notion that one "knows" the Negro because her maid or butler is a Negro and is "just like all Negroes." The writer or student who seeks the truth would, I presume, be most wary of all generalizations, and, indeed, most distrustful of those that are based on scanty and unreliable information.

**A** NEW approach, almost wholly neglected except by a very few students, is the one which insists on the use of materials provided by the Negro himself. Most of the writings about Negroes are based on what others have said about Negroes. The aspirations of Negroes have usually been derived from what someone said or thought about their aspirations. The activities of Negroes have been described by an outside, and frequently partial, observer. Although the articulation of Negroes has been limited by their education and, at times, by their fears, some of them have left a record worth examining if we wish to know the full story of their development. There are collections of letters by Negroes in easily accessible depositories; but they are seldom used by persons writing American history. There are the slave narratives that tell an interesting story about the institutions of slavery from another angle; but they are usually overlooked by persons studying the institutions. There are Negro newspapers, magazines, minutes of conventions, petitions of protest, and the like that are available in many places; but few have taken the time or trouble to examine them.

It might be argued, with some reason, that the records of Negroes are accounts by partial observers and can have only limited value in a scientific study. But it can also be argued that the records of whites are equally partial. If they have any superiority at all, it is in their greater quantity and, at times, their more lucid literary style.

No brief can be held for unreliable, spurious documents provided by Negroes. Such materials must be subjected to the same critical scrutiny to which all historical materials should be subjected. The unfortunate aspect of this problem is that too frequently the materials provided by the dominant group are subjected to no critical examination, while those of Negroes are not even considered by many scholars. It is heartening, however, to observe that much more attention is now being given to this new approach than ever before, with most gratifying results as far as illuminating the history of the American Negro is concerned.

THE maturity that Americans have achieved in the study and writing of history should make possible the employment of the rather new perspective involving the integration of the Negro's history into the main stream of American history. It seems unnecessary to labor the point here that the experiences of the Negro did not take place in a vacuum. He was peculiarly affected by everything that transpired in the larger community. In turn, his presence greatly influenced almost every phase of life in America. It is not possible, therefore, to ignore the Negro when talking about American foreign policy; for the Negro's presence has conditioned our relations with nations from the time when there was some concerted effort to close the slave trade down to the present when there is talk about sending a Negro to represent the United States in the Soviet Union. In a similar manner the economic, social, and cultural aspects of the nation's history have been colored by the presence of Negroes in the United States.

The difficulties involved in integration can hardly be used as an excuse for neglecting this extremely important approach. Unless and until it is done, we shall be without a complete and accurate history of our country. The integration of the Negro's history into the total historical development will assist in giving balance and perspective, both of which are so necessary in the achievement of anything resembling objectivity and reliability in the social sciences. One of the happiest results that would flow from the process of integration would be the opportunity that it would give to the student to see the painful process involved in the evolution of democracy in America. In the treatment and experiences of the Negro the student could see the weaknesses of the system, the discrepancies between profession and practice, and the power of

the forces operating to defeat democracy. He could see the acid test to which democracy in America has been subjected as it has attempted the difficult task of assimilating the various ethnic groups in the nation.

IT IS gratifying to observe that the number of historians who are employing some or all of these new perspectives in their writings and teachings is increasing. Vernon Wharton's *The Negro in Mississippi*<sup>3</sup> opens up an entirely new approach to the study and writing of the history of the Negro. C. Vann Woodward's *Tom Watson, Agrarian Rebel*<sup>4</sup> is a model biography of a man who lived in a state and at a time when the position of the Negro loomed large. Francis B. Simkins' *The South, Old and New*<sup>5</sup> gives, perhaps, the most objective and complete consideration to the history of the Negro that has ever been given in a regional history. Richard Hofstadter's "U. B. Phillips and the Plantation Legend,"<sup>6</sup> provides a valuable corrective to be used in connection with the works of the South's most distinguished historian. Howard K. Beale's "On Rewriting Reconstruction History,"<sup>7</sup> indicates the lines of approach that must be followed in any satisfactory re-evaluation of the nation's most difficult period. These are only a few of the examples of the employment of new perspectives that have resulted in a more enlightened American history.

At the same time numerous scholars have provided new materials for integration. The works of A. A. Taylor, Lorenzo Green's *The Negro in Colonial New England*,<sup>8</sup> E. Franklin Frazier's *Negro Family in the United States*,<sup>9</sup> Horace M. Bond's *Negro Education in Alabama*,<sup>10</sup> and the monumental *American Dilemma*<sup>11</sup> by Gunnar Myrdal are only a few of the better known titles. Both the quantity and the quality are growing at

<sup>3</sup> Wharton, Vernon. *The Negro in Mississippi*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1947.

<sup>4</sup> Woodward, C. Vann. *Tom Watson: Agrarian Rebel*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938.

<sup>5</sup> Simkins, Francis B. *The South, Old and New*. New York: A. A. Knopf, 1947.

<sup>6</sup> Hofstadter, Richard. "U. B. Phillips and the Plantation Legend." *Journal of Negro History* 29:109-24; April 1944.

<sup>7</sup> Beale, Howard K. "On Rewriting Reconstruction History." *American Historical Review* 45:807-27; July 1940.

<sup>8</sup> Green, Lorenzo. *The Negro in Colonial New England*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942.

<sup>9</sup> Frazier, E. Franklin. *The Negro Family in the United States*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

<sup>10</sup> Bond, Horace M. *Negro Education in Alabama*. Washington: The Associated Publishers, 1939.

<sup>11</sup> Myrdal, Gunnar. *An American Dilemma*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944.



such a rapid rate that it is almost impossible to keep up with them. The valuable essays in the Seventeenth Yearbook<sup>12</sup> of the National Council for the Social Studies summarize several significant developments in these areas.

#### PRACTICAL DIFFICULTIES

THE employment of these new perspectives in the teaching of history presents two practical difficulties to the person who is called upon to instruct our youth. One is the appallingly slow rate at which these new materials and approaches find their way into the textbooks. Too often, the men who write the textbooks are not the men who have achieved the new perspectives; and in those cases in which the authors are familiar with the field the publishers often will not permit the inclusion of materials of a revisionist nature for fear that their unpopularity will have an adverse effect on the sales. The other difficulty lies in the utter dependency of many of our teachers on only those materials that are to be found in the standard, sometimes outmoded, texts and in other sources approved by committees or boards whose qualifications to make such judgments are open to serious question.

The new perspectives through which the history of the American Negro may be viewed should provide a challenge to teachers of the social studies. It would seem that the more conscientious of them would not want to wait for these new approaches and treatments to find their way into the textbooks. The use of them is both so desirable and so urgent that their immediate incorporation into the teaching materials seems wholly justified. Such a procedure, of course, would mean that the teacher would be required to work more diligently in the periodical and monographic literature in the field of history; and it would mean that the ingenuity and creative intelligence of the teacher would be taxed to find ways and means of using the new materials. Where the materials were not available, teachers would be called upon to make substitutes. This might involve the use of local archival resources and other similar avenues by which materials for broadening and deepening the history of the country may be secured. The rewarding experience of achieving a greater balance in presenting the social studies to the citi-

zens of tomorrow would, it seems, compensate for any efforts that might be expended.

The field of the social sciences, perched on its pedestal of tentative respectability, can ill afford, when it comes to studying the Negro, to turn its back on the very principles that have given it some claim to its position. Certainly it could strengthen its position if, in studying the Negro, it could arrive at an objectivity that would support the view that there can be some degree of reliability and integrity in a discipline dealing with human relations. Perhaps there could be a substantial movement in the direction of a position in the study of human relations that would emphasize the basic similarities of all peoples and the differentiating influences of environment and opportunity. Just as surely as the presence of the Negro in America provides the acid test of our democratic institutions, so does the factor of the Negro in our history constitute the acid test of our adherence to truth and dispassion. We shall achieve real democracy only as our intellectual integrity becomes strong enough to support the searching and far-reaching implications of so noble a goal. New perspectives that provide the means of achieving truth and understanding are significant steps in that direction.

#### SUGGESTED READINGS

In addition to the works cited in the text, the following titles may be used with profit. The list does not, of course, pretend to be exhaustive.

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<sup>12</sup> Thursfield, Richard E., editor. *The Study and Teaching of American History*. Seventeenth Yearbook. Washington: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1946.



# Early American Civil Government Textbooks: An Analysis of Their Content

John A. Nietz and Wayne E. Mason

CONTRARY to the opinion held among most authorities in the field of social studies, the study of civil government has had a place in the American schools for more than one hundred and fifty years.<sup>1</sup> The following discussion is based upon an analysis of 70 civil government textbooks published in the United States before 1890. Although many of these books appeared in more than one edition, each title was counted only once unless the content was materially revised.

For analytical purposes the total time span has been divided into four twenty-five year periods, and the civil government textbooks published within these periods have been grouped and subjected to comparative and diagnostic analyses. The over-all analysis, a summary of which appears in Table I, indicates that practically all of the content can be classified under six major headings. A close examination of the data presented will also reveal some clear trends in the content of the books.

*Treatment of the origin and background of American government.* To provide a clearer picture of the content classified under this heading, the material was divided into five sub-topics. The earliest textbooks devoted more than 62 percent of their content to matters dealing with moral and ethical concepts as relating to society and law. With the passage of years, however, the emphasis shifted markedly, and the amount of space given to morals and ethics dropped to 30 percent,

11.4 percent, and 9.8 percent in the respective periods.

A second topic with which the authors were concerned was the theory, type, and history of government and law. The percentages of page space given to this topic during the four periods were 24, 48, 29, and 33. Chase, whose *Civil Government in Theory and Practice* compared and contrasted the government of the United States with that of other existing governments, allotted 82 percent of his book to this topic. More than half of the authors defined or described the more prevalent forms or types of government.

A third major topic treated in the books was the settlement of America, including a description of colonial life and government, although the treatment was usually brief. In only four books did the space allotted to this topic exceed 10 percent of the entire text. The percentages during the four periods were 6.4, 2, 23, and 19.2 respectively.

The fourth topic of background material related to the work of the Continental Congresses and the Annapolis Convention. Only 11 of the 70 textbooks entirely omitted this topic. The percentages of page space of background material dealing with this subject during the four periods were respectively 5.6, 17.3, 28.7, and 25.

The last sub-division of background material dealt with the convention for and adoption of the United States Constitution. Twenty of the books failed to allot as much as a full page to this topic. The other 50 authors devoted from one to 21 pages to it. The percentages during the four periods were 1.5, 2.7, 8.2, and 12.

As the data in Table I indicate, three or more times as much space per book was devoted to background material during the first period as

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This analysis of early American textbooks supplements an earlier study by the same authors that appeared in the October 1947 issue of *Social Education*. Dr. Nietz is a professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh. Dr. Mason is a school principal in McKeesport, Pa.

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<sup>1</sup>See John A. Nietz and Wayne E. Mason, "Evaluation of Civil Government as a School Subject," *Social Education* 11:252; October 1947.

TABLE I  
DATA SHOWING AVERAGE PAGE AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT IN  
THE CIVIL GOVERNMENT TEXTBOOKS PUBLISHED BETWEEN 1789-1890

Periods	1789-1814		1815-1839		1840-1864		1865-1889		Average	
Number of books (70)	3		10		20		37			
Origin and background of American Governmental institutions	* 131	** 75	* 41	** 25	* 42	** 19	* 32	** 14	* 40	** 19
The Federal Government in Operation	36	21	86	51	118	54	145	66	124	59
The State Governments in Operation	7	4	34	20	36	17	31	14	32	15
Local Government in Operation	0	0	2	1	5	2	8	3	6	3
Common and Statutory Law	0	0	3	2	14	7	3	2	6	3
International Law	0	0	1	1	3	1	1	1	2	1

\* Average number of pages devoted to each category of subject matter.

\*\* Percent of space devoted to each category of subject matter.

in any other period. It is apparent that much of the subject matter of the five sub-topics is not definitely civil government as such. However, this was characteristic of the early textbooks in most fields. For example, Webster's blue-backed *Speller* included reading and other materials, and the early geographies usually contained a great deal of history and government.

*Treatment of the federal government.* The subject of the federal government and its operation received more attention than the other five subjects combined. Fifty-nine percent of the total space of all the books dealt with this topic. In contrast with the attention paid to background material, which steadily decreased through the nineteenth century, the treatment of the federal government received growing emphasis. The percentage of space devoted to it during the four periods was 21, 51, 54, and 66 respectively.

*Treatment of state government.* Only 15 percent of the space in all of the textbooks was devoted to the functioning of state governments. The average percentage during the four periods was 4, 20, 17, and 14. It was during the second period (1815-1839), a period of western expansion, that the greatest attention was given to this topic. Despite the fact that the operation of state government is more immediately important to most people than that of the federal government (and this was certainly true during the nineteenth century), some authors omitted this subject from their books. Calvin Townsend even vehemently opposed dealing with it, saying in the preface to *A Shorter Course in Civil*

*Government*, "To learn the duties of town, city, and county officers has nothing whatever to do with the grand and noble subject of civil government. Such books on state governments have no place in the school room." This remark sounds strange indeed to twentieth-century ears. Despite such opposition, however, 49 authors gave some space to this subject.

*Treatment of lesser subjects.* In view of the reluctance to discuss state governments, it is not surprising to discover that the authors gave only 7 percent of their space to the topics of local government, common and statutory law, and international law. Attention to local government was about equally divided among the borough or village, the city, the town or township, and the county. Only 27 books gave any space to the subject, and the range in these books was from two to 27 pages.

Common or statutory law fared even worse. Before 1834 only one author discussed the subject. In later years it received some attention in 17 of the 70 books, and these authors considered it sufficiently important to give it an average 23-page treatment.

International law was almost completely neglected. In only twelve textbooks was the subject discussed. Whether this neglect grew out of the authors' feeling that the topic was not important, or whether the authors considered it too difficult to be taught the children in school, is not certain. For whatever reason, however, it is evident that American children were taught

(Continued on page 222)

# Labor-Management Relations in the Social Studies

Phillips Bradley

**T**HIS discussion of labor-management relations as an integral part of the social studies curriculum rests on several assumptions which may be stated at the outset. First, although it is certainly a "controversial" subject, we have enough examples of its successful treatment in many school systems to justify its consideration in others—wherever, indeed, it would be relevant. Second, that it is generally relevant to an understanding of our democratic process as well as of students' occupational future seems hardly arguable today. The newspaper headlines and radio programs are sufficient evidence. Since practically every youngster now in school will become a worker, and some of them owners or managers in the future, labor-management relations are of vital interest. Most, indeed, come from homes in which the trend of these relations makes an immediate impact. Third, because of this immediacy, labor-management relations offer a uniquely useful subject-matter for examining the problems of a democratic society and for teaching democratic methods for resolving them.

If these assumptions are usable criteria, labor-management relations, it can be anticipated, will become an increasingly important subject in social studies curricula. They provide one of the most dynamic potentials for linking the classroom and the community, of joining the realities

of the students' daily life with the objectives and the materials of teaching and learning.

One further point may be noted. The social studies curriculum is being bombarded with demands for the inclusion of scores of new topics. They are all urged as indispensable to the proper growth of democratic ideas and practices through the schools. Perhaps one of our major needs in curriculum-building today is to focus on a few of the great issues—out of which many of the urgent "problems" of democracy stem. By such a focusing, we can organize a more intelligible pattern of analysis—and of ways and means of solving the problems. Were we to rank our national issues and problems—economic, social, and political—on a priority scale, it is obvious that labor-management relations would rank among the half-dozen most important of our time. By teaching it at different levels in the schools, we may more adequately demonstrate its utility.

The *whys* of including it in the curriculum are implicit in the assumptions noted above; other *whys* will occur to every teacher concerned with advancing the understanding of democracy through the schools. But—*what* shall we teach in this highly volatile area of our national life, and *how* shall we teach it?

## AN APPROACH TO LABOR-MANAGEMENT RELATIONS

**M**ORE recent social studies texts include a unit on "labor." Too many still in active use give only passing attention to this largest segment of the nation—largest from the point of view of the people concerned. Most available text materials, even when adequate from the point of view of scope and objectivity, are restricted to a historical survey of the labor movement and/or of legislative regulation of management and union practices. But these approaches do not provide enough "body" for developing an awareness of the pervasive and dynamic influence of the *relations* of labor and management today.

Analysis of this field must obviously be rooted in the broader context of economic, social, and

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This is the first of two articles on the subject of labor-management relations in the social studies program. In the second article Professor Bradley will discuss ways and means of bringing the practice of labor-management relations into the classroom.

The author, a professor of political science at the University of Illinois, is well qualified to discuss this subject. He served as Director of Extension, New York City School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University (1945-46) and Director of the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois (1946-49).

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political forces as portrayed in the existing social studies curriculum. (Modifications will, of course, emerge from the inclusion of a fuller treatment of labor-management relations, but the linkage is essential.) The most useful focus of approach is, perhaps, institutional. Analysis of the roles played by management and by organized labor (not forgetting that of the three-quarters of the "labor force" not yet organized) in the process of production and distribution might serve as a starting point for the more intensive analysis of specific problems.

Not less important in the initial analysis is an understanding of the part we the people play through government in setting rules of the game for the active participants. With this broad approach to the contemporary scene as a background, the historical evolution of these roles—of management, of workers, of government—may well be portrayed. Students (themselves future workers and employers) need to be aware of the changing character of ideas and practices in our American society.

Whether this background is presented chronologically or in reverse is less important than that it be included; the question is one which the individual school can best decide. What is important is that the whole treatment be objective—and informed. The contributions, and the inadequacies, of both labor and management in our evolving economic and social affairs over the past century and a half can be portrayed without bias and in impartial terms. Only so, in fact, does the role of the people acting through government to regulate practices inimical to the general welfare become relevant and meaningful.

#### BUILDING A UNIT ON LABOR-MANAGEMENT RELATIONS

THE range of topics in labor-management relations is sufficiently broad and varied to allow a wide choice of emphasis in constructing a unit. Here, again, the local (community) pattern, economic and social, may well provide the most useful focus in determining the content of the unit. Content will also, of course, be conditioned both by the time allotted to the subject and by its place in the total social studies curriculum. A unit of two or three weeks will necessarily be different from one designed for eight or ten. (At least one high school, Clayton, Missouri, devotes an entire semester to this field in an elective course.) The main objective would seem to be to develop a unit which will most

surely stimulate the students' interest in and awareness of the major labor-management problems they will confront when they take jobs, and as citizens. The community scene as the starting point, or at least as a source for illustration and analysis, offers many possibilities for making a unit come alive.

Incidentally too, a labor-management-relations unit can become a highly useful tool for the vocational counselor. By developing a greater understanding of the field as a whole, as well as of the community situation, students will be better equipped to appraise their bent and interests in the light of the job trends in various occupations.

To list all the possible topics which might be included in a comprehensive unit would, in effect, reproduce the table of contents of a good text. The interested teacher can develop such a list from any two or three standard works in half an hour. The process of selection is a good deal more difficult. The half-dozen topics indicated here are intended only to suggest the wide variety of possible subject-matter and course approaches to the field as a whole. Others are certainly not less important than these; local interests and needs should always be the test of inclusion. Some units, of whatever length, may deal with only one or two topics; others may treat more topics less intensively. The *whats* of a unit can be answered only in the light of the community, the students, and the school. These community-focused *whats* will pretty well run across the board of labor-management relations today.

#### SIX TOPICS—AMONG MANY

1. *The Changing Economy.* The evolution of our productive-distributive system has induced broad changes in our patterns of making a living. The drift from the country to the city, the shift from farming to industry (and increasingly to the service trades), the growth of specialization (in trades and professions as well as in industrial and commercial practices) are only a few of the more significant economic trends. Students' awareness of this evolving background, rooted in our historical situation, will enable them to understand better the contemporary scene.

2. *What It Takes To Make and Maintain a Job: The Management Function.* Many of the conflicts in labor-management relations grow out of the absence of understanding by one side of the felt interests and needs of the other. Generally speaking, few people outside "management" understand the organization, long-range plan-



ning, capital investment, and other factors involved in putting a person to work—and keeping him there—in a plant or business or store. There is, however, widespread curiosity as well as considerable misinformation about the overall management function. An aspect of particular interest to the prospective young worker is the hiring and firing process—and all the steps in between in what we call personnel management. A sound analysis and appraisal of this area can be interesting and pertinent to high school students.

3. *Workers in America: The Role of Unions.* No less vital to efficient production and distribution than management is the worker who makes and handles the products management plans and designs. The workers' contributions to the social and political as well as to the economic progress of the nation is a neglected record—too much so at all levels of education. Some sense of that record is worth developing before our present students become future workers. Similarly, the growth of unions—why they have grown, how they are organized, what their objectives are and how they seek to achieve them—is a story which needs to be told. Here, no less than with respect to management's policies and practices, the debits as well as the credits must be stated and appraised—without bias but in an effort to understand.

4. *Life Inside the Plant: Human Relations in Industry.* Organization—on both sides—is a function of the stated or unconscious objectives of management or union. How organizations, formal or informal, behave in the context of the plant, the office, the store, will affect—adversely or otherwise—the relations of the parties. What is widely called human relations in industry, the sociological and psychological framework (of the workplace) is a major factor in determining the character of labor-management relations as a whole. There are now available many "case studies" of both good and poor human relations; they, as well as direct observation in the community, can help to sensitize the future worker or student to the conditions he will meet.

5. *The Collective-Bargaining Process.* Labor-management relations in most of our largest and most important industries are today predominantly regulated by what we call collective bargaining. Here, too, many case studies exist and can be utilized to make the student more aware of the problems and the potentialities of self-government in industry. The dramatic spread and effectiveness of collective bargaining in recent decades are the surest basis for anticipating—and creating

—better labor-management relations. The record itself is a useful tool in the classroom.

6. *Making Rules of the Game: The Role of Government.* How we, the people, have regulated labor-management relations (in all its phases) by legislative policy and its administrative implementation is an important aspect of any dynamic treatment of cures. Where it is fitted into the curriculum is immaterial. Students should be aware of public policies, how they have evolved and how they are made (pressure groups), what the "public interest" is and how it has developed. The absence of adequate attention to this topic is all too conspicuous in our high schools today—in this as in other fields of public policy.

From this list, expanded by the experience of the interested teacher, the development of a unit—of any desired length and for any level in the schools—can be undertaken with almost a certainty of its success in action. The subject-matter has immediate interest for, perhaps impact on, the personal and family experience of many students. Various topics are of daily newspaper and radio attention. Materials for study can be drawn from direct observation in the community. Does any subject-matter in the social studies offer a greater challenge for citizenship training or a greater potential for its effective conduct?

#### SELECTED READINGS IN LABOR-MANAGEMENT RELATIONS

- Faulkner, H. U., and Starr, Mark. *Labor in America*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.
- Marx, H. L., editor. *American Labor Unions: Organization, Aims, Power*. New York: Wilson Co., 1950.
- Myers, James. *Do You Know Labor?* New York: John Day Co., 1943.
- New York Times*, Office of Educational Activities. *Labor in the News*. Filmstrip with accompanying teachers manual. New York: *New York Times*, 1949.
- Carskaden, T. R. *Workers and Bosses Are Human*. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 76. Carskaden, T. R. *Your Stake in Collective Bargaining*. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 117.
- Nichols, Osgood, and Carskaden, T. R. *Can Labor and Management Work Together?* Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 151. New York: Public Affairs Committee, 1943, 1946, 1949.
- Twentieth Century Fund. *Partners in Production*. New York: The Fund, 1949.
- U. S. Bureau of Labor Standards. *Federal Labor Laws and Agencies*. Bulletin No. 100. Washington: The Bureau, 1948.
- U. S. Bureau of Labor Standards. *This Gift of Freedom*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1949.
- Warren, E. L. *Collective Bargaining*. Los Angeles: University of Calif., Institute of Industrial Relations, 1949.
- The Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois (Champaign) publishes a monthly reading list, *Labor-Management Relations: A Selected List of Readings for High School Teachers and Students*. Address the Librarian of the Institute.

# Educational Evaluation: Recent Developments

Warren G. Findley

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## NEW EMPHASIS ON APPLYING KNOWLEDGE

**D**EVELOPMENTS in the past ten years in educational evaluation have been tremendous, if not revolutionary.

The change that has had the widest effect on testing and teaching is the change from emphasis on measuring retention of isolated facts to emphasis on measuring ability to apply facts and principles to the solution of new problems. For many years past it has been the custom of critics of standardized tests to point out that such tests have generally measured mastery of discrete bits of knowledge while neglecting to require application of the facts as evidence of functional mastery. Rebuttal has usually taken one of two major tacks. Either the critic was told that his own essay-type tests were being graded for evidence of purely factual knowledge, or the test maker assured the critic that all was well, that knowledge was power, and that ability to answer factual questions was in most cases sufficient evidence of ability to use such facts effectively.

Today, fortunately, the tide has set definitely in the direction of accepting the criticism as a constructive point of departure in building tests. This is not to say that the newer standardized tests measure up fully at every point to the challenge of requiring the individual to apply his knowledge and understanding to the resolution of problems or situations new to him. This is still a goal in the distance, but it is an accepted goal and the newer tests approach it with varying degrees of success.

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This analysis of recent developments in the field of educational evaluation has been prepared for *Social Education* by the Director of Test Development, Educational Testing Service.

Reprints of this article, and of others in the series, may be secured for 10 cents each. Write to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

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The problem of accrediting the educational experiences of veterans of World War II brought into the spotlight a new type of test, the *Tests of General Educational Development* of the United States Armed Forces Institute.<sup>1</sup> These two test batteries, one for accrediting the equivalence of high-school graduation and the other for the major courses of the college freshman year, each contained a test of *Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Social Studies* and companion measures of the same sort in the fields of the natural sciences and literature. In these tests the veterans were asked to read study material—sometimes including charts, graphs, and tables—and then to answer questions that were based on what had been read, but that often also required application of background knowledge from the same field in reaching the correct conclusions or best answers. To avoid putting a premium on speed of response, no time limits were set and examinees were allowed to continue at their natural pace until finished. The effect was to reproduce in miniature the conditions characteristic of study situations in high school and college. Because of this, the tests have a use beyond that originally intended. This is especially true of the tests in the social studies, which have generally shown the highest correlation with grades in college in comparative studies.

The precursors of these USAFI tests were the *Iowa Tests of Educational Development*.<sup>2</sup> These were launched with the announcement of the 1942 Fall Testing Program for Iowa High Schools.<sup>3</sup> Three tests of the nine contained in the total eight-hour battery measure interpretation of materials in the fields of social studies, natural sciences, and literature, respectively. Other tests

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<sup>1</sup> United States Armed Forces Institute Examinations. Princeton, N.J.: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.

<sup>2</sup> *Iowa Tests of Educational Development*. Chicago: Science Research Associates.

<sup>3</sup> Lindquist, E. F. *Fall Testing Program for Iowa High Schools*. University of Iowa Publication, New Series No. 1242. Iowa City, Iowa: The University, April 11, 1942.

in the battery that are of special interest to social studies teachers are Test 1, "Understanding of Basic Social Concepts," and Test 9, "Uses of Sources of Information." In a school system that will undertake this ambitious program of preliminary testing, many values will accrue to the social studies teacher in the information obtained. One of the notable features of this program is that the tests are rented, while scoring service is sold as an aid to the teacher in rapidly and painlessly securing test results and sound interpretations thereof.

The emphasis on fall testing mentioned incidentally above is to be found in state programs of testing not only in Iowa but in New York and Connecticut, in large city programs, and in the publicity of a number of commercial test publishers today. Fall testing has the great advantage of putting the emphasis on identifying specific strengths and weaknesses of individual students and of the whole classes and then motivating teacher and students as a team to collaborate on improvement. This wholesome emphasis is to be contrasted with the earlier preoccupation with testing for grading and promotion or postmortem with the resultant tendency for teachers and students to cram for final tests.

Another basic contribution to the evaluation of the ability to apply knowledge to the solution of problems is to be found in the publication in 1942 of *Appraising and Recording Student Behavior*.<sup>4</sup> Smith and Tyler, with the aid of the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study sponsored by the Progressive Education Association, described in this volume the development of the great variety of tests produced in that study. The *Interpretation of Data Tests*,<sup>5</sup> adapted for use in grades 7 through 14, are a classic example. In each of these tests ten exercises are presented, each followed by fifteen searching items for which the students are required to indicate whether the evidence makes them true, probably true, indeterminate, probably false, or false. In addition to yielding a simple score of total number of items correct, the tests lend themselves to scoring for errors of over-generalization or excessive caution. Other tests of ability to apply knowledge that will be of interest to social studies teachers in-

clude tests of *Application of Principles of Logical Reasoning*, of the *Nature of Proof*, and of *Applying Social Facts and Generalizations to Social Problems*.

Incidentally, a particularly good measure of ability to reason logically is Glaser's test of critical thinking which is incorporated into Thouless's book, *How To Think Straight*.<sup>6</sup> The examinee is asked first to state his belief as to the soundness of certain conclusions and then is asked to judge whether or not the conclusions would have to be true if he accepted certain premises as true. Objectivity of judgment is assessed in terms of whether or not the examinee is able to accept as sound the logical process that proves a conclusion he considers unsound and to accept as unsound illogical argument offered in support of a conclusion with which he agrees. The questions deal with issues in the period that led up to Munich, but this writer can testify to their present-day effectiveness if the tenses are adjusted.

The emphasis on application of knowledge is well reflected in the USAFI subject examinations<sup>7</sup> and in recent forms of the cooperative tests in the social studies.<sup>8</sup> A characteristic of current forms is that this newer emphasis has often brought with it a certain wordiness and a tendency for average students to get a relatively small percentage of the questions correct.

#### IMPROVING TEACHER-MADE TESTS

TEACHERS who wish to improve their own tests in the direction of measuring ability to apply social studies knowledge will find most helpful *The Measurement of Understanding*,<sup>9</sup> the 1946 Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. In addition to general discussion of the why, what, and how of measuring understanding, as contrasted with mere memorizations, the volume includes chapters on measuring understanding in each of the major fields of study. Howard Anderson, Elaine Forsyth

<sup>4</sup> Thouless, Robert H. *How To Think Straight*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1939.

<sup>7</sup> United States Armed Forces Institute Examinations. Princeton, N.J.: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.

<sup>8</sup> *Cooperative General Achievement Tests*. Princeton, N.J.: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.

<sup>9</sup> Brownell, William A., chairman. *The Measurement of Understanding*. Forty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946.

<sup>4</sup> Smith, Eugene R., and Tyler, Ralph W. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942.

<sup>5</sup> *Interpretation of Data Tests: 2.51, 2.71*. Princeton, N.J.: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.



(Cook), and Horace Morse collaborated on producing thirty pages of varied illustrative material related to three major objectives and twelve specific objectives of social studies instruction.

A special note of caution may well be added here. Test specialists have long stressed the fact that achievement is properly measured only if the distribution of scores is such that average students get a little more than half the test questions right, while leading students obtain only a nearly perfect score. The inclusion of questions requiring the application of knowledge to new, realistic situations is bound to make tests harder than tests of factual information on the same subject. Great care needs to be exercised to obtain clarity of statement and simple enough applications not to confound and frustrate students. It will become essential to give up the concept of 100 percent perfect, 70 percent passing, in favor of grading in relation to what the average student can do. Because of the technical problems of test construction involved in making tests with this new emphasis, teachers may wish to use published tests at first and develop their own measures later in the light of experience with the published tests.

#### EVALUATION VS. MEASUREMENT

A BASIC change in viewpoint is reflected in the title of this article. Ten years ago it probably would have read, "Educational Measurement: Recent Developments." As an indication of the transition we find the title of an excellent new general textbook, *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*.<sup>10</sup> This is not just a matter of changing educational jargon. The insistence of Tyler<sup>11</sup> and Wrightstone<sup>12</sup> during the '30's that schools should attempt comprehensive evaluation programs to appraise how well they were achieving *all* their objectives has found wider acceptance. It is no longer acceptable to confine programs to measurement of those learning outcomes accessible to objective appraisal by means of tests.

This change has been brought about in large part through the development and demonstration

of new techniques of appraisal. In *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*,<sup>13</sup> previously cited, Smith and Tyler described the use in the Eight-Year Study of *A Scale of Beliefs on Social Issues*, *Beliefs About School Life*, a *Social Problems Test*, and several questionnaire indexes of interests and adjustments in addition to the tests already described. *A Scale of Beliefs on Social Issues* consisted of two parallel 100-item lists of statements on social issues, every positive statement on an issue in one form being matched by a negative statement on the same issue in the other form. *Beliefs About School Life* contained 118 paired statements reflecting liberal or conventional attitudes toward school problems. Each of two forms of the *Social Problems Test* consisted of ten short paragraphs describing social problems (capital vs. labor, race relations, unemployment, etc.), each followed by a choice of solution and reasons in support of the solution. An especially significant feature of this program was the use of the instruments jointly to get measures of consistency between beliefs and knowledge.

An important sequel to this whole study at the college level is the Cooperative Study in General Education, one of the very readable volumes of its report being entitled *General Education in the Social Studies*.<sup>14</sup> Of continuing interest to social studies teachers, as an instructional as well as an evaluation device, is the 150-item *Inventory of Social Understanding* described there. It yields not only a total score but also scores for "unwarranted uncertainty" and "lack of discrimination." This test and those previously cited from the Eight-Year Study are being studied for their general usefulness and will be made available by the Cooperative Test Division of Educational Testing Service as the demand for them becomes evident. Of considerable significance, but now out of date, is the *Inventory of Beliefs About Postwar Reconstruction*. The detailed analysis of responses to items of this inventory by 2,207 students in eleven colleges will repay careful study by social studies teachers.

An important by-product of these major studies has been the demonstration that faculty review of evaluation procedures provides excellent in-service training in curriculum study as well. The preparation of statements of objectives in terms

<sup>10</sup> Remmers, Hermann H., and Gage, Nathaniel L. *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943.

<sup>11</sup> Tyler, Ralph W. *Constructing Achievement Tests*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1934.

<sup>12</sup> Wrightstone, J. Wayne. *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

<sup>13</sup> Smith and Tyler, *op. cit.*

<sup>14</sup> Levi, Albert W. *General Education in the Social Studies*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1948.



of changes expected in student behavior, which is basic to appraisal or development of evaluation procedures, is equally basic to curriculum study.

Lyman<sup>15</sup> reports a *School Attitude Inventory* involving four separate measures of attitude: toward the school's social life and fellow students, toward teachers, toward the curriculum, and toward the school administration. In one study of differences in morale between two schools, the inventory results pointed to the administration as the primary source of differences. The place of studies of attitudes and of emotional and social adjustment in a total program of evaluation is well outlined in the text by Remmers and Gage<sup>16</sup> already alluded to. This text has the special virtue of indicating in addition the integral place of evaluation of the physical aspects of development and of environmental factors in the total evaluation program. Another new general text of merit is by Ross.<sup>17</sup>

#### CONTEMPORARY AFFAIRS TESTS

A great new aid to teachers who wish to evaluate success in instruction on contemporary affairs are the annual editions of the *Cooperative Test of Recent Social and Scientific Developments*<sup>18</sup> for high school classes, and the *Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test for College Students*.<sup>19</sup> Standardized in advance, these tests are available first each spring in major testing programs sponsored by the Cooperative Test Division of Educational Testing Service. The tests have been commended by critics for striking a nice balance. Like good current-events instruction, they are concerned with current affairs of significance and appraise a deeper understanding of material over a period of time rather than mere memory for headlines.

#### APPRAISALS OF PUBLISHED TESTS

A new edition of a basic reference source for test users is *The Third Mental Measurements*

<sup>15</sup> Lyman, Howard B. "Differentiating Attitudes of Students at Two High Schools by Use of a School Attitude Inventory." *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 9:227-32; Summer 1949.

<sup>16</sup> Remmers and Gage, *op. cit.*

<sup>17</sup> Ross, Clay C. *Measurement in Today's Schools*, Second edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1947.

<sup>18</sup> *Cooperative Test of Recent Social and Scientific Developments*. Princeton, N.J.: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.

<sup>19</sup> *Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test for College Students*. Princeton, N.J.: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.

*Yearbook*.<sup>20</sup> This monumental volume, like its predecessors, must be consulted to be appreciated. Its great merit resides in the parallel presentation of test reviews by two or three critics. An interesting recurrence of one comment was to be noted in the reviews of several achievement batteries. This was to the effect that such batteries might well be devoted to the measurement of skills, whereas local initiative should be encouraged to take over the production of tests of those content areas, notably social studies, where local variation is desirable and is, in fact, the rule. Indirectly, this serves to call attention to the great usefulness for social studies teachers of the *Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills: Test B, Work-Study Skills*.<sup>21</sup> The five parts of this test, on map interpretation, use of an index, use of a dictionary, knowledge of reference sources, and the reading of charts, tables, and graphs, lend themselves to planning of instruction and motivation of learning of these skills so basic to learning in the social studies.

Somewhat obscure tests that receive generally favorable commendation from critics in the current yearbook are: the *Cooperative Community Affairs Test*,<sup>22</sup> the *Fourth Grade Geography Test*,<sup>23</sup> of the National Council of Geography Teachers, and the *Wiedefeld-Walther Geography Test*.<sup>24</sup> The first is a measure of understanding of basic facts and relations about one's community, including social, cultural, and economic, as well as civic, information. A census year makes this particularly appropriate to mention. The other two tests are commended as functional measures of geography outcomes.

#### EVALUATING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

A newcomer to the field of evaluation of social behavior in the schools is sociometry. This technique consists essentially of asking children to indicate choices among their classmates of individuals with whom they prefer to associate in various activities. The plotting of lines of choice on a "sociogram" permits the teacher to identify

<sup>20</sup> Buros, Oscar Krisen, editor. *The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook*. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1949.

<sup>21</sup> *Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills: Test B, Work-Study Skills*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

<sup>22</sup> *Cooperative Community Affairs Test*. Princeton, N.J.: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.

<sup>23</sup> *Fourth Grade Geography Test* of the National Council of Geography Teachers. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight.

<sup>24</sup> *Wiedefeld-Walther Geography Test*. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Co.

clearly "stars" and "isolates." As with any technique, this requires thoughtful application to be effective. Some may argue that it reveals nothing that the "good" teacher does not already know about her pupils. In most situations, however, the "good" teacher will be the first to hail and use the technique and her socially less sensitive colleagues will gain new insights. A carefully prepared work guide for teachers<sup>25</sup> is available. For the relation of this technique to the framework of theoretical social psychology, the reader may be referred to the recent text by Krech and Crutchfield.<sup>26</sup>

#### COLLEGE EVALUATION OFFICER

A new trend in higher education is the college evaluation office, or officer. For some years the University of Chicago, Michigan State College, the University of Florida, and other higher institutions have had central boards of examiners with responsibility for preparing tests in the general education courses of the first two years. A somewhat different trend is advisory service on evaluation to whole faculties as at Syracuse University, described by Troyen,<sup>27</sup> and at the Air

Force's Air University, as described by Greene and the writer.<sup>28</sup> The key concept is advisory assistance based on voluntary seeking of such assistance by faculty members. The extension of this function to public schools in large systems, urban or rural, is a reasonable prospect for the measurable future.

#### CITIZENSHIP RATINGS ON REPORT CARDS

A final note has to do with citizenship evaluation in the schools as incorporated into report cards. The writer has visited schools where such evaluation is accorded great importance by students, faculty, and the community. In one instance, parents were reported to have a most cooperative attitude and to express as great concern over citizenship ratings as over the traditional subject-matter grades. Elsewhere, the reporting involves little more than separate "department" ratings by teachers, in which a favorable rating means "docile" while an unfavorable rating means "obstreperous," with little constructive attention to the results. Rather than stress forms or procedures, the writer prefers to refer the reader to the *Handbook of Cumulative Records*<sup>29</sup> for descriptions of constructive use of this and related information.

<sup>25</sup> Jennings, Helen Hall. *Sociometry in Group Relations*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1948.

<sup>26</sup> Krech, David, and Crutchfield, Richard S. *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1948.

<sup>27</sup> Troyer, Maurice E. "An Evaluation Service Center." *Journal of Higher Education* 20:152-55; March 1949.

<sup>28</sup> Greene, James E., and Findley, Warren G. "Evaluative Procedures for the Improvement of Instruction." *The Educational Record* 30:33-44; January 1949.

<sup>29</sup> *Handbook of Cumulative Records*, Bulletin 1944, No. 5. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education.

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"No man is fit to educate unless he feels each pupil an end in himself, with his own rights and his own personality, not merely a piece in a jig-saw puzzle, or a soldier in a regiment or a citizen in a State. Reverence for human personality is the beginning of wisdom, in every social question, but above all in education" (Bertrand Russell, *Sceptical Essays*, 1928, p. 205).

"Much is learned after puberty, but in childhood education is more than mere learning. There education is the growth of the disposition, the fixing of the prejudices to which all later experience is cumulative. In childhood men acquire the forms of their seeing, the prototypes of their feeling, the style of their character" (Walter Lippmann, *A Preface to Morals*, 1929, p. 91).

# Group Guidance Through the Social Studies

Max Birnbaum

THE growth of the specialized guidance services has obscured the responsibility of the teacher for pupil-guidance. More serious is the general assumption that the specialized guidance services are equipped to solve the complex emotional and social problems of children. In the transfer of the guidance responsibility to specialists, certain errors have unfortunately arisen. One is that the counselor should function as a psycho-therapist in helping the pupil solve his own serious behavior problems. This assumption is implicit in the average teacher's displeasure when a "problem" pupil returns from the guidance office as great a problem as before. When one reflects that the average period of analysis, conducted by a highly trained specialist, lasts two years, one wonders at the optimism of the classroom teacher. The counselor, on the other hand, frequently commits an equally serious error; he operates too often upon the belief that the only effective guidance is individual. Here and there is visible some appreciation of the possibilities of group guidance, but conceived usually as a supplement to the individual relationship.

There is increasing evidence, however, in social science research that the most powerful influences, negative and positive, are being exerted through peer relationships. Consequently, until we explore the potentialities of the classroom group for constructive pupil guidance, we are only nibbling away at the periphery of the problem.

## IMPORTANCE OF GROUP GUIDANCE

COMMENCING with the pioneer researches into group climates, conducted by Lewin, Lippitt, and White at Iowa State, and Moreno

and Jennings at the Hudson Training School for Girls, a rich literature on the possibilities of individual change through group process has been accumulated. Moreover, such change appears to be easier if the individual is part of a group undergoing a change-experience. When the behavior patterns of such diverse groups as housewives, factory workers, and gang members can be changed positively by social engineers working with groups, it is time for both the teacher and the guidance specialist to recognize that classroom groupings are the best possible environment for school guidance. The guidance specialist must now also recognize the need for restructuring his relationship to the class group and its official leader. There is no intention here to explore the scope of the new relationship, but merely to point out the consultative function of the guidance service in the realignment.

Once there is agreement of the crucial importance of group guidance the question arises: Which teachers? Which groups? The answer for the elementary school is obvious—all teachers who work with a single group of children for the major portion of the school day. In the departmentalized high school the problem is more complex. Shall it be the science, language, or English classes? Obviously, wherever groupings exist, peer relationships, value structures, and peer influences are present. Thus every classroom is a unique opportunity for pupil guidance, but it is equally obvious that some subject matter fields deal more directly than others with the intellectual, social, and emotional factors which affect pupil behavior.

Consider in this connection the rich subject matter content of the social studies: family problems, marriage and divorce, intergroup relationships, community participation, mental hygiene, civic responsibility, and competence. Can there be any doubt that the social studies are central to any group guidance program? Moreover, social studies teachers have long since relegated the acquisition of information *per se* to the bottom of its list of objectives. Attitudinal and behavioral

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An important aspect of the guidance program is discussed by the chairman of the social studies department of Weequahic (N.J.) High School. Mr. Birnbaum is also director of the Rutgers University Workshop in Human Relations.

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changes plus skill in critical thinking and problem-solving were placed at the top of the list more than a decade ago. Thus, on paper at least, the primary objectives of the social studies coincide with those of pupil-guidance. Despite paper comparisons, however, the bottom of the list appears to be the top in too many of our social studies classrooms. Consequently, the development of teaching as a function of group management should bring about not only better pupil guidance but may succeed in effectuating the basic objectives of the social studies as well.

There may be objections at this point that the individual might be overlooked in emphasis on the group, but it has been demonstrated that teachers who have used a group-oriented methodology have often been able to identify and help the very individuals who needed extra attention. To illustrate this approach a composite of the experiences of several social studies teachers who have attended the Rutgers Workshop in Human Relations will be cited as a case study. Before beginning the description of these experiences, let us grant that a case study of this type can always stack the cards in favor of the writer's special hypothesis; the realistic difficulties facing its application may be omitted or slurred over. The sole answer to this objection is that nothing which is to be described has not already happened to the knowledge of many engaged in teacher training.

#### GROUP GUIDANCE—A CASE STUDY

OUR teacher is Mr. Logan; his school community is a low socio-economic neighborhood. His senior social studies class is composed of thirty-two youngsters, only five of whom are planning to attend college; the remainder are destined for technical and manual occupations of various types. Lack of work opportunities has kept a number of these students in school long beyond the time they would have quit had jobs been available.

Discussion sessions in Logan's class were extremely discouraging because of the students' apathy. A few were always dominating the discussion, others sat glowering at the stellar performers, muttering "apple-polishers" and less printable equivalents. On one occasion after Logan was detained in the office beyond the bell, he returned to find the class chairman practically voiceless and the class in bedlam. After some probing discussion, the teacher began to realize that his group needed social and emotional guid-

ance right then and there, if there were to be anything but discord for the remainder of the term. After further discussion with his class, Logan decided to attempt small-group work; his pupils apparently lacked the motivation and social maturity for productive large-group discussion. He also realized that certain behavioral changes which involved emotional reconditioning were necessary before his pupils could operate constructively.

At the next class session, he asked his students if they would like to attempt working in small groups on one of the four units which comprised the term's work in "Problems of Democracy." This unit, scheduled to take five weeks, dealt with the problem of home and family living. When the class agreed, he asked them to choose those whom they wished to work with and assured them that he would try to fulfill their choices.

Once his sociogram was drawn, Logan realized that the structure of his group was extremely poor. There were at least eight isolates out of thirty-two pupils, three of whom were the "apple-polishers." The class chairman, originally elected by the students, was under-chosen, suggesting either that he had lost status or that his election was a tribute to the teacher and not to his popularity among his classmates. The most chosen boy—Joe, was one with a very poor record: low marks, frequent visits to the principal's office for insolence to faculty members, and a general contempt for school and its values.

Several challenges were posed by the group structure revealed in the sociogram. Did Joe's high choice status indicate qualities of "natural" leadership unnoticed by teachers, or did it reflect group rejection of the classroom experience? How could the behavior of the over-aggressive isolates be moderated? How could the possible natural leadership of Joe be harnessed for constructive purposes? Or, how could the group be brought to see that its choice of Joe was not to its best interests?

Logan now began a series of short nondirective interviews in an effort to relate himself to each student. These interviews revealed considerable information concerning the values of most of the group. School-emphasized values such as promptness, discipline, and proper work habits were held in low esteem; only a few isolates accepted them. Not all the interviews were revealing, but those which were increased immeasurably Logan's comprehension of the individual and his classroom behavior.



The most rewarding experience for the teacher was the interview with Joe, for in it was revealed a pattern of family life which helped to explain his school behavior to some degree. It was a picture of parental discord and a disorganized family unit, one member of which had spent time in prison. Deeply ashamed of his home environment, Joe chose to defy acceptable social mores as his means of fighting back against the school, which, because it concerned itself more with the ideal than the real, forced him continually to make invidious comparisons with his own home.

For Logan the significant outcome of the interview was the realization that his unit on the home and family must avoid stressing only the "ideal" American family. The unit had to be focused around the real problems of the members of his class if it were to be meaningful to the students. Such an approach might prove embarrassing, but Logan felt that this could be avoided if the students were encouraged to talk not about their own families, but about "families they knew"—a polite fiction which would enable those students who were concerned about their own situations to secure help, and yet minimize the shame of self-exposure.

Once Logan felt that he had a proper assessment of the situation, he completed the group arrangement, taking care to see that some of those who had never learned to get along with each other were in the same sub-group. The structure of choices permitted this in all except two cases. Then for several days the entire group discussed the question, "what facts do we need before we can solve some of the problems in home and family life?" Afterwards the group was divided into three sub-groups each charged with gathering information about actual family situations from each other and from any other sources.

AFTER a few ineffectual starts the sub-groups began to discuss animatedly the descriptions of family life which each student presented to the common pool. The teacher circulated amongst the groups posing an occasional question to sharpen the discussion or to bring out some important data overlooked by the student-informant. In one group which had difficulty keeping some of its members from throttling those who were dominating the discussion, Logan suggested the use of a process observer to record group behavior and feed it back to the group. A miraculous conversion took place here after a

confirmed discussion-dominator had a turn at process-observing.

But the sub-group discussion procedure was by no means wholly agreeable. There were many times when students threw up their hands and demanded that Logan intervene either to restore order, or, more significantly, to "tell us the truth." Logan also observed the general contempt many students had for another's contribution to the discussion. Their attitude was comparable to that of teachers in a workshop situation who object to the "pooling of ignorance."

After each sub-group had gone "once around," the whole group was reconvened and typical family situations were discussed and listed on the blackboard. These were then set up as a series of problems: 1. How can one stop a brother or sister from squealing on him or her? 2. What can one do to discourage parents from having quarrels in public or in front of us kids? 3. How can a girl convince her parents that coming home late from a date is not the worst calamity in the world? 4. How can a kid get to understand his parents better? 5. How should one approach his parents for money? 6. How can a kid help his parents get along better?

At this point the teacher suggested sociodrama as a means of deepening insight into these situations. There was, indeed, a more important reason for using sociodrama at this juncture for given dramatic insight into alternative ways of handling a family situation, it was possible for members of the group to identify with those playing the roles without feeling that their own behavior was being threatened. Discussion on the best way to deal with a family problem provided group sanction for behavioral change, an important factor in re-education at all times.

Another technique advantageously used by Logan was the presentation of film-forums where two films—*Feelings of Hostility* and *Feelings of Rejection*—were shown with the school psychiatrist as the consultant. Considerable care was taken to discourage the group from becoming movie critics or losing themselves in analysis of the plot. Logan had learned enough about group discussion techniques to focus immediately on audience feelings and remembrances of experiences which were precipitated by viewing the film. The psychiatrist joined in whenever expert comment was required. He recognized more than did the teacher that the development of insight into one's own feelings and behavior, and not the acquisition of technical information about neu-

roses and psychoses, was the desired outcome.

Now Logan enlarged the students' notions of family situations by using short stories taken from popular magazines and novels. The useful *Reading Ladders in Human Relations* was an invaluable bibliographical resource to which he turned again and again. Logan found that the story-reaction situations were especially productive. He would read a short story, stop before the ending, and ask the group how it would solve the problem posed therein. After considerable discussion, Logan would read the end of the story and the group would compare their solution with the author's. This comparison helped them to realize that there was no one satisfactory way of solving personal problems, but that some ways were apparently more appropriate than others. But, the most important outcome was some experience, albeit vicarious, in solving family conflict situations.

For the first time Logan's class was able to conduct whole-group discussions with a minimum of friction. Observable behavioral changes were noticed not only in Joe but also in those whose feelings of insecurity in the group had prompted them before to stress adequacy in recitation. Joe apparently *had* natural leadership ability which now tended to act as a constructive force. Logan was experienced enough, however, to question whether the permissive group situation and Logan's acceptant behavior had merely caused a temporary cessation of Joe's hostility. Despite occasional lapses into previous behavior patterns on the part of Joe and the group, Logan was not too discouraged, for he recognized that permanent changes in behavior are not accomplished miraculously, but result only after patient and enduring effort.

The role of the teacher in a group-learning situation is of paramount importance. Throughout the unit there were many occasions when Logan was called upon to play the role of expert and authority. Often the class would demand, "Tell us, Mr. Logan, what is right or wrong here"; or, "Mr. Logan, don't you think the father should have acted thus and so in this family situa-

tion?" Since he realized that "telling" the group what was the proper behavior, *even if he knew*, was the worst approach if he wished to deepen the students' perceptions, Logan politely refused to play authority and referred the question back for group discussion. In thus structuring his behavior, Logan acted his role as a guide, pointing ways for pupil self-direction, and preventing closure before the group had discussed the problem thoroughly.

#### CONCLUSIONS

AT THE end of the unit Logan was more convinced than ever that pupil guidance was most productive in a group environment. Throughout the five weeks, his major goal had been to help the group determine its objectives and achieve them by exploration of meaningful experiences. Whatever changes in perception of family problems occurred were group induced and supported. Also, such changes in group behavior as were observable, were effected by the interaction of equals and not by direct adult influences. Although he recognized that it was theoretically possible to have helped Joe and the intellectual isolates by individual guidance, he doubted that the behavioral changes which did take place could have come about without cooperation from the classroom group. Furthermore, guidance was needed by the entire group and his approach through group process seemed not only the most economical but also the only feasible procedure in the classroom situation.

By way of conclusion, a restatement of the challenges to social studies teachers implicit in this case study would be helpful. If the social studies and guidance objectives of social, civic, and emotional competence are to be realized, the approach must be through: 1. The employment of the classroom group as a "growing environment" in which peers teach peers. 2. Through the use of group dynamics techniques, employed not as a bag of tricks, but wherever the situation demands them. 3. Through pupil-teacher collaboration. And, 4. through the problem-centered approach to social studies teaching.

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"We cannot change habit directly: that notion is magic. But we can change it indirectly by modifying conditions, by an intelligent selecting and weighting of the objects which engage attention and which influence the fulfilment of desires" (John Dewey, *Human Nature and Conduct*, 1922, p. 20).

# Cooperatives in the School Curriculum

D. L. Beran

IT HAS often been said that American democracy was born in the New England Town Meeting. It is becoming increasingly apparent that if democracy is to be preserved and extended it will be so because it is defended from within as well as from without. Part of that defense lies in the speed and degree of effectiveness with which citizens learn how to work together to make decisions in affairs both large and small.

But "thinking is hard work; prejudice is a pleasure." How often in recent years have we seen a lazy people lose their liberty simply because they had not the moral stamina necessary to think for themselves and solve for themselves the problems that all free peoples must solve if they are to continue to be free? If we are to continue enjoying a free, democratic society, it will be because the people want that kind of society and want it badly enough to work for it. Murray Lincoln, one of America's great contemporary rural leaders, sounds the keynote in his oft-quoted phrase, "People have in their own hands the tools with which to fashion their destiny." We must, as Americans, choose between learning how to do things for ourselves or permitting others to do our thinking for us, or, just as surely as daylight breaks tomorrow, we will find ourselves in the not to be envied position of having the state do all our thinking for us.

One of the movements through which people have been working out their own destiny, literally pulling themselves up by their own bootstraps, is the cooperative movement. Glenn Thompson, educational director of one of the largest of the regional cooperative organizations in America, defines it as "an educational movement which employs economic techniques to

realize socially desirable objectives or goals."

The number of people in the United States who now participate in cooperatives, as members or patrons, or both, is placed at figures ranging from six to ten million families. Jerry Voorhis, secretary of the Cooperative League of the United States, establishes the number at roughly ten million families. Preliminary figures issued by the Farm Credit Administration set the total membership of farmers' marketing and purchasing cooperatives alone at approximately six million, which of course does not include the many other cooperatives to be found in urban communities. The increase in membership of the marketing and purchasing cooperatives, however, is estimated to be half a million members in just the one year of 1947-48. The total business done annually through cooperative outlets is estimated at over eight billion dollars. Minnesota led all other states in number of cooperatives, membership, and volume. The next nine states in rank, on the basis of volume of business done, were California, Illinois, Iowa, New York, Wisconsin, Indiana, Texas, and Missouri. Joseph G. Knapp, writing in the July 1949 issue of *News for Farmers Cooperatives*, estimates that about half of the farmers of the United States are now members of purchasing and marketing cooperatives of various types, and that nearly every one of the five million or more farmers of the nation is a member of some kind of cooperative.

Cooperation and the cooperative enterprise is a part of the American tradition. The school, the church, our postal and road systems are all cooperative in nature and practically identical in operative techniques with our present-day cooperative business enterprises.

## NEED FOR TEACHING ABOUT COOPERATIVES

CONSIDERING the fact that rural schools enroll 48 percent of the nation's pupils and employ 52 percent of the teachers, the need for acquainting rural teachers and children with the cooperative movement becomes readily ap-

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parent.<sup>1</sup> Cooperatives are part of the day-to-day life of a significantly large part of the population. Because of their influence on the social and economic phases of our life, they exert an influence that extends even to those who are neither members nor patrons. Dr. Frank Cyr of Teachers College comments that "our public schools, colleges, and universities are operated to educate citizens. Cooperatives have become a significant part of American life. . . . The purpose of our educational institutions is to immunize against ignorance. An understanding of cooperatives should be a part of the public school curriculum along side of government, business, international relations, labor, and other topics now taught in the schools."<sup>2</sup> Now that the cooperative enterprise has become so large a part of the economic and social life of the people of the nation, the protection of the public welfare itself is a sufficient reason for everyone becoming well informed concerning the principles, objectives, and operations of cooperatives. Where the economic destinies of so many people are involved in an institution, it becomes highly important that all citizens be well informed so that competent officials, efficient operations, and practices consistent with stated principles be followed lest the means of livelihood of a large segment of the population be threatened by insecurity. Thus, it would seem essential that schools and teachers be fully aware of the new responsibility they now face.

As early as 1925 the teachers of America, through the National Education Association, went on record in favor of the extension of knowledge about cooperatives. The Department of Rural Education, meeting that year in Indianapolis, in announcing plans for preparing farm children for intelligent participation in cooperative agriculture, gave as one reason: "It is the business of education in rural communities to prepare farmers to live intelligent and successful lives; one important phase of this is to prepare them to be intelligent, willing, loyal courageous members of marketing groups now that the cooperative form of agricultural life is becoming the permanent form in America."<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Dawson, Howard A. "The Problem and the Outlook in Financing Rural Education," from an address to the Harvard University Summer School, Conference on Educational Administration, July 1948.

<sup>2</sup> Cyr, Frank. "The Need for Cooperative Education," in *American Cooperation*, 1947. Yearbook of the American Institute of Cooperation. William L. Robins, editor. Washington: The Institute, 1947. p. 326.

COOPERATIVES are contributing to the extension of democracy itself. People, when they face great problems, can use one of three ways in which to solve them. They can use the present welfare agencies, which may prove inadequate; they can turn to the government; or they can learn how to help themselves. Through cooperative action they have learned to become independent of governmental largess. Doing things together has developed in them habits and techniques of analyzing their problems. Pride of ownership has built in its members a new concept of and an interest in the community. Fashioning their own destiny out of the qualities inherent in the mind and soul of each individual, people, through cooperative action, by means of face-to-face associations, have lifted the level of their economic life and in so doing have improved the cultural and social phases.

Aside from the fact that cooperatives are an important element of democratic society and that they are so much a part of the life of rural people especially, there are further reasons to be advanced which help to explain their significance in the school curriculum. Most important of these are that cooperatives introduce into American business new concepts: That of operating for service instead of profit, and that of observing democratic control in our economic as well as in our political institutions. These two innovations are distinct departures from the traditional pattern and have had an enormous effect upon the thinking and action of people all over the world. Because of these two changes in the way of doing business, we have looked upon cooperatives as an evolutionary rather than a revolutionary element in our society.

#### SOME TEACHING PROBLEMS

IN 1935 Wisconsin legislators recognized the importance of cooperatives as an element in the life of the people of the state by enacting legislation requiring the public schools to include such instruction in their curriculum. A recent study of the teaching of cooperatives in Wisconsin<sup>4</sup> revealed that most of the teachers of the state are interested in cooperatives and want to teach about them because: (1) they consider them an important economic development today; (2)

<sup>3</sup> Reported in the *Dairyland News*, Lake Mills, Wisconsin, September 4, 1925; on file in the Legislative Library, State Capitol Building, Madison, Wisconsin.

<sup>4</sup> Data supplied in an unpublished doctoral dissertation by the author of the present article.

they believe that cooperatives are an integrating influence in the community; (3) they (the teachers) are interested in them; and (4) many people in the community belong to cooperatives.

The teachers participating in the study revealed that the principal difficulties encountered in teaching about cooperatives were: (1) a limited number of available textbooks and references; (2) their own limited knowledge about cooperatives; (3) their limited knowledge of sources of films about cooperatives; and (4) the difficulty they have experienced in securing teaching helps. One problem which seemed to dominate all others was that, outside of the legislative requirement, no one seemed to know how and why cooperatives are important in the social and economic life of the people of the state.

Space does not permit an inventory of the various sources to which teachers can turn for help in teaching about cooperatives. Suffice it to say that local and regional cooperative offices, the American Institute of Cooperation,<sup>5</sup> and the Cooperative League of the U.S.A.<sup>6</sup> are in a position to supply innumerable books, pamphlets, films, resource consultants, and teaching aids. Many of these are supplied without cost. Those which are not free are usually distributed at a very nominal fee. The resource unit, *Cooperatives in School and Community*,<sup>7</sup> is an excellent teacher's guide for all grades from one to twelve inclusive.

**T**HERE are, however, many other sources of information about cooperatives which teachers may utilize. In the Wisconsin study, previously quoted, it was not uncommon to find that a teacher had reported "no knowledge about cooperatives," or "no cooperatives in the area in which I teach" only to discover that the very school in which she taught received its electric power from a rural electric cooperative. Teachers may easily learn about cooperatives first-hand by becoming acquainted with a teacher-owned cooperative, such as the credit union which is operated in many states by educational associations, state and local. While at college or university during the summer, the teacher might well become acquainted with the cooperative idea, and save some money in the process, by

rooming and boarding at a cooperative campus boarding house. She can save herself additional money by buying her books and school supplies at the campus cooperative store found in so many college towns today. At the University of Wisconsin, for instance, the University Coop has for several years consistently paid a 17 percent dividend on purchases. In many local communities, and the number of such communities is constantly increasing, the teacher can purchase food, clothing, gas, oil, tires, fuel, and a variety of other essential items at savings of 4 to 8, and even 10, percent. Many local cooperatives have a credit union where the patrons can borrow money at the ridiculously low interest of  $\frac{1}{2}$  of 1 percent on the unpaid balance common to all credit unions. And, should such a rare individual exist, the teacher who has money to invest or save can deposit it at the credit union or the local cooperative where it customarily draws interest at 4 percent.

In her own classroom the teacher can make life more "real and earnest" through the operation of a cooperative store. Educational periodicals have carried reports of the success of such school cooperatives at Winnetka, Illinois, Centerville, Minnesota, and Badger, Wisconsin; and all attest to the fact that here is afforded an excellent opportunity to learn by doing. And, if this long list of orientation possibilities should not reach the varied interest of all teachers, one more can be added. For the past several years the National Cooperative Recreation Association has conducted a two-week summer workshop on the campus of Mission House College, Sheboygan, Wisconsin. For the teacher who wants to learn about cooperatives and folk recreation, music, creative activities, handicrafts, dramatics, and community discussion while living in an atmosphere that develops a better understanding of fellow students representing every race, religion, and section of the country, this cooperative recreation school answers the need.

The church, the government, and the great social and cultural leaders of America have looked upon cooperatives with favor and have called them a truly democratic element in our society. They have endorsed the cooperative way as a contribution to and an extension of democracy. Many have lent their time and efforts to spread the understanding of cooperatives. Teachers can do no less if they are to make the school a dynamic and vital force in the community.

<sup>5</sup> 1302 18th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

<sup>6</sup> 726 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, D.C.

<sup>7</sup> Columbia and Wisconsin Curriculum Workshops. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.

# "Age of Jackson": A Review

Gurston Goldin

THE feud between the capitalist and laborer . . . can never be entirely quieted." This statement by George Bancroft, assigned a complete page immediately following the one bearing the dedication in the *Age of Jackson* by Arthur Meier Schlesinger, Jr., is the theme of Professor Schlesinger's thesis that Jacksonian democracy was dedicated to a struggle against the entrenched privileged business interests of the nation. In this contest, Professor Schlesinger claims, the basis of Jacksonian strength was the Eastern workingman who revolted against wealth. He reads the history of the era in terms not of party or sectional conflicts but of economic and social cleavages, and attempts to demonstrate that the history of the period illustrates a theory of social tension—the struggle between capital and labor. "It seems clear now that more can be understood about Jacksonian democracy if it is regarded as a problem not of sections but of classes."<sup>1</sup>

IT HAS been shown that Professor Schlesinger's analysis, that the problem with which the Jacksonians grappled may be described as an effort to control the power of the Eastern privileged monied capitalistic groups for the benefit of the non-capitalistic groups, is not correct. One must not, as Professor Schlesinger has, read into the history of American radicalism of the Jacksonian period the later conception of a class conflict between capitalists on the one side and a mass of propertyless wage earners on the other. President Jackson, no more than Thomas Jefferson, considered himself the champion especially

of the wage earner. He, like Jefferson, recognizing the material conditions of freedom, was the champion of all the so-called "industrious," which by the 1830's included farmers, mechanics, merchants, and industrialists, as Jefferson's agricultural paradise had become a casualty of history. Professor Joseph Dorfman has written that "Of all the groups that Jefferson and Jackson included in the category of 'workingmen' it would seem that the wage earners were least in their mind, for to their way of thinking, a land of wage earners, that is a great propertyless class, would spell the doom of democracy as they conceived it. . . . What has led students astray is the failure to appreciate the rather broad meaning of the term 'workingmen.' Just who was included in the category was never quite clear. . . . They (Jackson and Jefferson) like the rest of their generation, were the heirs of the great tradition that a man without property was the *de facto* slave of the possessors of property. He only was free who possessed property."<sup>2</sup>

THE Jacksonian movement was a major phase in the expansion of liberated capitalism. The typical American of the 1830's was an expectant capitalist, and it was the entrepreneurial impulse that gave Jacksonianism its vitality. The real conflict in the Jacksonian era, which Professor Schlesinger does not recognize, was between economic privilege represented by monopoly and the small entrepreneur eager for economic advancement free from the artificial closure of opportunity. The Jacksonian movement "aimed to take the grip of government-granted privileges off the natural economic order,"<sup>3</sup> and rally all small entrepreneurs in a fight against economic privilege to liberate business enterprise. President Jackson added the concept of economic freedom and equality of opportunity to Jefferson's philosophy of political freedom. The Jack-

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When *Age of Jackson*, by Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., was published in 1945, it was accepted as an important book, receiving widespread attention and a Pulitzer prize. It also became the subject of considerable controversy, and several of the author's conclusions have been attacked by fellow historians.

The author of this brief critique of the *Age of Jackson* is a graduate student of history at Columbia University.

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<sup>1</sup> Schlesinger, Arthur M., Jr. *Age of Jackson*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1945. p. 263.

<sup>2</sup> Dorfman, Joseph. "Jackson Wage-Earner Thesis." *American Historical Review* 54: 296-306; January 1949.

<sup>3</sup> Hofstadter, Richard. *The American Political Tradition*. New York: A. A. Knopf, 1948. p. 61.



sonian revolution was not labor oriented as Professor Schlesinger would interpret it.

Professor Schlesinger contributes a needed correction to the Turner thesis when he properly emphasizes that the Jacksonian movement, a struggle against the economically dominant few, reflected Eastern as well as frontier influence, and it was not the radicalism of the West which was its sole driving force. Indeed it is only to be expected that the motivating ideas in the struggle would come from the East where the nature of business power was understood. However, he associates the Eastern influence with labor alone and not with business enterprise. This thesis, "that a substantial movement of Eastern wage earners, led and inspired by radical, anticapitalistic elements among Jackson's supporters, became a significant part of the Jacksonian movement," Professor Dorfman has called the "Jackson wage-earner thesis," and has successfully attacked it. He writes:

The confusions of the wage earner interpretation of radicalism are manifold. The first is a confusion of monetary reform with labor radicalism. The Jacksonians were indeed for monetary reform. But the purpose of the monetary reform was not to help labor—they generally neglected direct labor reforms—but to create better business conditions and remove panics.

Another difficulty arises from the fact that many of the writers never intended that their broad, scorching indictments of existing institutions should be taken as principles for concrete action beyond specific business demands. . . . (The *Democratic Review* said that) all it wanted was to eliminate the monopoly feature of the specially privileged character of corporations through the passage of a general incorporation act.<sup>4</sup>

**A**LTHOUGH Professor Schlesinger has attempted to demonstrate from the contemporaneous literature of the Jacksonian period that Old Hickory's concern must be expressed in terms of capital versus labor, this student believes that a recent highly revealing discovery by Professor Richard B. Morris will indicate that our previous analysis of Jacksonianism, presented above, in terms of privileged monopoly versus liberal capitalism of free enterprise, is the more valid one. Professor Schlesinger should remember that conclusions must be established by evidence, not by deductive logic. No amount of inference can be a substitute for the facts. A judgment on the character of President Jackson's administration must be founded on an examination of what Jackson did as chief magistrate, and on nothing

else. Professor Morris' investigation deserves our detailed consideration.<sup>5</sup>

"'Old Hickory,' labor's true friend according to the portrait limned by twentieth century historians," sent federal troops into Maryland to restrain discontented workmen, and so earns the "dubious distinction of being the first executive to dispatch federal troops to intervene in a labor dispute."

"The circumstances which called forth President Jackson's hitherto unpublished military order written in his own hand stemmed from difficulties with the Irish laborers recruited for the construction projects on the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal." The specific labor incident on the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal project which provoked the unprecedented intervention of the federal government originated near Williamsport, Maryland, around 16 January 1834, the cause of the disturbance being an attempt on the part of the laborers to enforce the closed shop. Following the outbreak of hostilities, the General Assembly passed a resolution, addressed to the President, saying in part:

Whereas . . . there has been, and there is strong reason to believe there will be again, riotous assemblages of the labourers, at or near Williamsport. . . .

Be it resolved by the General Assembly of Maryland, that the President of the United States, be and he is hereby requested to order on to Williamsport, such portion of the military of the General Government, as in his opinion may be necessary to protect our Citizens. . . .

President Jackson in his own hand endorsed the request as follows:

The Secretary of War will forthwith order such military as will be able to aid the civil authority of Maryland to put down the riotous assembly named within—at least two companies of regulars with as much expedition as possible.

Janry 29th 1834

A. J.<sup>6</sup>

United States troops remained encamped on the line throughout the winter of 1834.

Professor Morris analyzes the incident as follows:

When Jackson sent federal troops to the line of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal to put down a strike of Irish laborers, he was definitely acting in accordance with his own conception of the enlarged powers of the presidency. It was characteristic of Jackson, ever the man of action, of imperious temper and military background to take this precipitate step without reflecting upon its unprecedented

<sup>5</sup> I am indebted to Professor Henry F. Graff for bringing the article to my attention in an oral communication.

<sup>6</sup> Professor Morris gives the following source for this item: Records of the War Department, Office of the Secretary of War, T- Misc. 1834, National Archives.

<sup>4</sup> Dorfman, *op. cit.*

character. For Jackson was the first president to send in federal troops to quell disorders which had not arisen out of a violation of federal law or a defiance of the federal government. . . . Jackson's action should remove any lingering doubt about his concern with the problems of industrial labor . . . there is no evidence that Jackson favored combinations of labor any more than combinations of capital . . .<sup>1</sup>

This excellent piece of research should do much to destroy the popular myth which has painted Jackson as the darling of the "toiling masses." President Jackson was not going to permit labor monopoly nor business monopoly to throttle free enterprise.

Professor Schlesinger describes with admiration and affectionate amusement President Jackson's trick of evading embarrassing situations by simulating apoplectic rage that made his visitors depart for fear lest the ailing executive burst a blood vessel on their account. He also counts it to the President's advantage that his intelligence expressed itself in judgment rather than in analysis. According to Professor Schlesinger, Old Hickory's intellectual and argumentative deficiency was more than compensated for by his intuitive faculty. The capacity for reasoning out conclusions and imparting them intellectually is a "gratuitous faculty, as little to be expected as that a poet should be able to write an explanatory criticism on his own poem."<sup>2</sup> No doubt President Jackson felt the propriety and necessity of his action in the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal dispute so strongly that he could not talk about it! But Professor Schlesinger reaches the *pièce de résistance* in his naive worship of President Jackson when he gushes: "In last analysis, there lay the secret of his strength: his deep natural understanding of the people. . . . He believed that to 'labor for the good of the masses was a special mission assigned to him by his Creator. . . . The people called him, and he came, like the great folk heroes, to lead them out of captivity and bondage.'<sup>3</sup> In fact, there is a nobility of all things Jacksonian and a sordidness of all things opposed in Professor Schlesinger's study.

Professor Schlesinger rides his thesis a bit too hard in his treatment of the war against the Bank of the United States. The Bank is made a

moneyed monster headed by a sinister figure, Nicholas Biddle, who was drunk with power. There is a great deal to be said for the Bank as an important economic instrument, but Professor Schlesinger practically ignores the arguments in support of the Bank. The Bank under Biddle had performed creditably in applying restraint upon inflation and providing a sound and uniform currency. But President Jackson, in Professor Schlesinger's account, emerged a glorious victor when he destroyed a semi-government institution at a moment when the country needed it most and delivered the nation to the excesses of disordered currency and unregulated credit expansion. Of course President Jackson thought that he was fighting economic privilege; Professor Schlesinger has already established the point that his genius lay in his capacity for intuitive perception and that his intelligence expressed itself in judgment rather than in analysis. The infallibility of intuition is betrayed by this episode.

**I**N SPITE of the fact that the main emphasis in this review has been a damaging criticism of the central thesis of Professor Schlesinger's study, he deserves to be commended for an exhaustive inquiry into the age of Jackson. Professor Schlesinger sees the Jacksonian movement as an intellectual as well as a political one. He correctly understands history as something more than political conflict and devotes six chapters to a treatment of the new democratic spirit as it manifested itself in the intellectual endeavors in all areas during this period. Legal, economic, literary, religious, and utopian thought all protested privilege and affirmed the rights of the common man. The utopian movement was an expression of the idealistic rebellion against the rising spirit of free enterprise. Professor Schlesinger describes the disruption of the Jacksonian tradition on the issue of slavery which submerged economic issues in moral arguments.

The *Age of Jackson* is a richly documented and scholarly investigation. Professor Schlesinger has examined manuscript material, public records, pamphlets, and volumes of relatively obscure people. The intricate and detailed apparatus of scholarship, the footnotes and the bibliography, indicate the patient and laborious research which makes this study a truly monumental work of American historical writing.

<sup>1</sup> Morris, Richard R. "Andrew Jackson, Strikebreaker." *American Historical Review* 55: 54-68; October 1949.

<sup>2</sup> Schlesinger, *op. cit.* p. 42, note 22.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 43

# United Nations Reading Materials

John U. Michaelis

THE purpose of this study is to investigate the level of reading difficulty of current materials issued by the United Nations organization and its agencies. The importance of this problem stems from the facts that: (a) a large quantity of current UN materials are now available, and (b) they are being used in grades seven through twelve by teachers in various school systems. Several teachers interviewed by the writer reported reading difficulties in connection with their use. Practical questions confronting teachers are: How difficult are UN materials? On what level are they written?

The procedure used in this study was to analyze a sampling of United Nations materials through the application of reading formulas. Several different types of UN materials were selected for analysis, including leaflets, pamphlets, the *United Nations Bulletin*, and larger works.

Formulas developed by Dale-Chall, Flesch, Lewerenz, Lorge, and Washburne<sup>1</sup> were considered for use in this study. The Dale-Chall formula was finally selected for use because of ease of application, availability of grade-placement, indexes, and wide grade-placement range which extended from grade seven to sixteen (college graduate level). The Flesch formula was used to double-check the difficulty of a small sampling of the materials.

The Dale-Chall formula was applied by two analysts working independently. The work of each analyst was checked and the average of both ratings is presented in this study. In all instances the Dale-Chall scores were very close, and in no instance did they vary sufficiently to change the grade placement level. Table I presents the list of UN materials and levels of difficulty according to the formula.

The difficulty of securing adequate reading materials for students remains one of the major problems for teachers interested in developing a better understanding of the nature and work of the United Nations. This problem is discussed by an associate professor of education in the School of Education at the University of California in Berkeley.

TABLE I. GRADE PLACEMENT OF CURRENT UNITED NATIONS MATERIALS BY THE DALE-CHALL FORMULA

Materials	Dale-Chall Formula		
Title	No. of Pages	Raw Score Averages	Grade Placement
<i>Leaflets</i>			
UN Newsletter, Vol. 2, No. 11	8	9.4	13-15*
UN, What It Is . . .	9	9.9	13-15
FAO At Work—Balancing Food and People	7	9.3	13-15
FAO, What It Is . . .	7		11-12
ICAO, What It Is . . .	7	9.9	13-15
UNESCO, What It Is . . .	8	10.6	16**
<i>Pamphlets</i>			
Basic Facts about the UN	24	8.7	11-12
Guide to the UN Charter	53	9.9	13-15
How Peoples Work Together	47	9.5	13-15
What the UN Is Doing for Better World Trade	16	9.3	13-15
What the UN Is Doing for Refugees and Displaced Persons	16	9.6	13-15
ICAO, Basic Memorandum	37	10.3	16
Malik, <i>Covenant of Human Rights</i>	32		16
<i>Booklets</i>			
Everyman's UN	201	9.5	13-15
For Fundamental Human Rights	126	9.3	13-15
<i>Magazines</i>			
United Nations Bulletin, Vol. 5, No. 6	713-752	10.2	16
United Nations Bulletin, Vol. 6, No. 7	289-356	10.2	16

\* College level.      \*\* College graduate level.

(These materials can be secured from the Department of Public Information, United Nations, Lake Success, New York).

<sup>1</sup> Dale, Edgar, and Chall, Jeanne S. "A Formula for Predicting Readability: Instructions." *Educational Research Bulletin* 27:37-54; February 17, 1948.

Flesch, Rudolf. "A New Readability Yardstick." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 32:221-33; June 1948.

Lewerenz, A. S. "Measurement of the Difficulty of Reading Materials." *Educational Research Bulletin*, Los Angeles Public Schools 8:11-16; March 1929.

Lorge, Irving. "Predicting Readability." *Teachers College Record* 45:404-19; March 1944.

Washburne, Carlton, and Morphett, M. "Grade Placement of Children's Books." *Elementary School Journal* 38:355-64; January 1938.



TABLE II. COMPARISON OF DALE-CHALL AND FLESCH RATINGS OF SELECTED UNITED NATIONS MATERIALS

Materials	Flesch		Dale-Chall
	Raw Score	Level of Difficulty	Grade Placement
Everyman's UNO	24.223	Very Difficult	13-15*
For Fundamental Human Rights	36.055	Very Difficult	13-15
ICAO, What It Is . . .	29.938	Very Difficult	13-15
Guide to the UN Charter	31.722	Difficult	13-15
UN Bulletin	26.787	Very Difficult	16**
UNESCO, What It Is	20.601	Very Difficult	16

\* College Level.

\*\* College Graduate Level.

The leaflets checked in this study are all written on a high grade-level, 13 to 16, with the exception of the Food and Agriculture Organization publication, which has a grade placement index of 11 to 12. The pamphlets have a grade placement index of 13 to 16, with the exception of "Basic Facts About the United Nations." The two copies of the magazine, *United Nations Bulletin*, are written on the college graduate level. The two booklets checked in this study have a grade placement index of 13 to 15. Only two of the seventeen publications have a grade placement rating of as low as 11 to 12.

The Flesch formula was next applied to several of the materials to double-check the level of difficulty. This formula was used because of its ease of application and widespread use on adult ma-

terial. The close correspondence between the ratings by both formulas is shown in Table II.

### CONCLUSIONS

1. The results from both formulas indicate that United Nations reading materials are written on an advanced reading level. It is doubtful if they can be used satisfactorily as reading material in the junior high school or with pupils in high school who are retarded in reading. At whatever level they are used, specific attention should be given to the development of concepts and understandings contained in them.

2. The need for current United Nations reading materials on an easier reading level is clear. That this is no easy task is immediately apparent when one considers the ideas and terms involved in international planning. However, experts on the United Nations working in cooperation with individuals skilled in preparing school materials should be able to make a rich contribution to international education by preparing materials on an easier reading level.

3. Two studies are suggested as a result of this investigation. A study of the difficult terms and concepts found in United Nations materials should prove helpful to secondary school teachers. A second study is needed to determine the adequacy of available formulas for use in evaluating social studies material at the high school level. A formula especially designed for use on social studies content may be more effective than those considered in this investigation.

## EARLY AMERICAN CIVIL GOVERNMENT TEXTBOOKS

(Continued from page 202)

very little about international affairs in the civil government courses before 1890.

In summary, the study of civil government has had a place in American schools for more than 150 years. The earliest texts emphasized the origin and backgrounds of American governmental institutions. Beginning with the second 25-year

period (1815) and thereafter the greatest emphasis was on the nature and operation of the federal government. Relatively little space was devoted to local and state government in the 70 civil government textbooks published in the United States before 1890, and virtually no space to international governmental matters.

# School-Community Relations: A Report on a Poll of 67 Educators

Paul W. Coons

**H**ISTORIANS are likely to agree that the growing integration of school and community in the United States is one of the most significant educational developments of the twentieth century. Two phases of this development have already taken place. The first saw the rise of a philosophy favorable to school-community cooperation; the second, now in full swing, is marked by widespread experimentation in the face of criticism whose tenor is illustrated by the oft-heard remark that the school's business is to teach children at least one of the R's and not to take them sight-seeing. It seems likely that the closing decades of this century will find intelligent people everywhere concerned that their children acquire from public school a community-consciousness gained from experiences under the guidance of public-spirited citizens, their teachers.

Although forward-looking educators rarely dispute the value of close and cordial school-community relations, it is not clear to what extent schools are implementing the philosophy that boys and girls learn to be good citizens by first-hand acquaintance with the problems of their neighborhoods and cities. To what extent are students giving thoughtful consideration to means by which these problems may be solved? How actively are schools participating in efforts looking toward their solution? In short, what is the practice? Are teachers alert to their opportunities? How clear are their objectives as community resources are used to implement classroom programs? Are schools organized to promote interplay of school and community? Do educators anticipate expansion of this sort of educational experience?

In order to throw some light on current experimentation, the writer submitted a question-

naire to participants in the Workshop on Education for Economic Understanding conducted this past summer jointly by New York University and the Joint Council on Economic Education (see page 224). In addition to marking *yes* or *no* spaces, respondents were encouraged to comment and cite specific illustrations.

There was no attempt to go beyond the workshop membership in securing data. Whatever validity inheres in the results comes from several facts about the respondents. They came from all types of school systems, from small towns, and great cities. The vast majority were people of considerable experience in public school administration and teaching. Thirty-three were administrators or supervisors; thirty-four were classroom teachers. Twenty states and fifty-two communities were represented. Five of these states are in the Northeast, seven in the South, six in the Middle West, and two in the Far West. The range of geographical coverage is further emphasized by the fact that among the communities were Boston; Los Angeles; Racine, Wisconsin; and Oak Ridge, Louisiana. To a greater or lesser degree, all the respondents were aware of the importance of good school-community relations. Since the return of the questionnaire was optional and the type of responses called for mostly factual, it is probable that there was serious effort to report existing conditions.

## OBSERVATIONS ON REPLIES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

**R**ESPONDENTS made liberal use of the opportunity to comment on specific kinds of school-community enterprises being conducted in their school systems and on their own and the administration's views of this kind of educational experience. These comments, together with the tabulation of *yes* and *no* responses, form the basis for the following observations.

1. The curriculum in most of the communities represented has a community orientation. Conscious effort is being made by over 80 percent of the schools to benefit the community, and over

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This report was prepared by a consultant in the social studies for the Hartford (Connecticut) public schools.

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## QUESTIONNAIRE

ANSWERED BY 67 PARTICIPANTS IN THE NEW YORK  
UNIVERSITY JOINT COUNCIL ON ECONOMIC  
EDUCATION WORKSHOP, 1949

Question	Responses					
	Total		Adminis- trators		Teachers	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1. Is your school or school system participating in projects for improvement of the community?	52	15	28	5	24	10
2. Are trips by students into the community a regular part of your school program?	52	15	29	4	23	11
3. Are interviews by classes of committees with representatives from government, business, labor, etc., a regular part of the program of the school?	41	26	25	8	16	18
4. Is there an active P.T.A. in your school community?	56	11	30	3	26	8
5. Are community leaders invited to speak with classes during the regular school day? (Not in school assemblies.)	49	18	25	8	24	10
6. Do students commonly use the community as a field of historical, social, economic, and political exploration?	45	22	24	9	21	13
7. Is there a student organization in your school which officially and formally represents the student body in making known to municipal authorities its opinion on matters of concern to youth, such as recreation?	31	36	16	17	15	19
8. Does your school cooperate with employers in arranging for after-school jobs for students?	62	5	30	3	32	2
9. Are school or community leaders planning, as far as you know, to strengthen school-community relations?	61	6	31	2	30	4

90 percent of the replies indicate awareness of plans to strengthen school-community relations.

2. More than thirty kinds of community activities were reported. They include: trips to courts, factories, and centers of government; par-

ticipation in public forums; adult education programs; "career nights" with employers; surveys; youth councils to propose matters to municipal authorities; cultural services, such as music programs; participation in intergroup projects; interviews with civic leaders; representation on community coordination councils; and a striking variety of efforts to build better public relations by effective publicity.

It appears that some things are common practice; for instance, trips by students into the community, inviting community leaders to speak with students, cooperation with employers to arrange for after-school jobs, and planning to strengthen school-community relations. Other things occur less frequently; interviews and the use of the community as a field for social explorations are examples.

On only one item, number 7, out of the nine on the check list was the majority vote "no." From this fact and from the comments regarding relations between student organizations and municipal authorities, it is evidently a new idea for students to present to municipal authorities their opinions on matters of concern to youth. Parenthetically, it may be observed that this kind of community relationship opens an educational frontier of large potentiality—if school and civic leaders have the vision and the courage to assist high school youth to organize for this purpose, and the still greater vision and courage to remain in the background once the organization is functioning. Indications of such development are to be seen in the inter-school council of Terre Haute, Indiana; the Mayor's Youth Council of White Plains, New York; and the Hartford Junior City Council of Hartford, Connecticut.<sup>1</sup>

3. While a majority reported types of activity which stress observing, listening, or discussing, a respectable number of communities are trying to develop good citizenship attitudes by enlisting student participation in civic affairs. Radio broadcasts, projects connected with cleanup week, activity in the National Conference of Christians and Jews, and student representation on city-planning boards bring youth directly into the life of the adult community as participants.

4. As might be expected, student contacts with

<sup>1</sup>A copy of the Charter of the Hartford Junior City Council, which was drawn up by a committee of nine high school students and ratified by members of grades 10, 11, and 12 in the fall of 1949, may be secured by writing to Executive Secretary, Hartford Junior City Council, 249 High Street, Hartford, Connecticut.



community leaders are mostly with businessmen and city officials. None of the sixty-seven respondents noted that labor leaders are interviewed or trips taken to union headquarters. Numerous comments, however, indicate that both administrators and teachers regret this slighting of an important section of community life and several respondents registered their intention of making it possible for their pupils to gain first-hand acquaintance with organized labor.

5. A note that recurred over and again through the replies was the relatively small importance of total school planning in promoting school-community relations and the relatively great importance of the initiative of the individual teacher. One school system schedules two days per year in which trips into the community may be taken by classes, but the major role of school administration seems to be granting approval if a teacher wishes to schedule an interview or use the community as a field of exploration and study in some other way.

Three strands of opinion underlie remarks bearing on the role of the school administration: One, a feeling that there is a danger of excessive interference with normal school routine; two, doubt as to the wisdom of taking the time of busy civic leaders to grant interviews or to address groups in the school; three—the majority opinion—recognition of the importance of better school-community relations and the value of making them an integral part of the school program.

6. Considering the fact that most of the respondents are engaged in work on the secondary level, it is surprising that such a large proportion, 56 out of 67, say that their communities have active P.T.A.'s or comparable organizations. It is possible that some of the replies interpreted the question as meaning any parent-teacher organization, whether related to the particular school of the respondent or not. Yet the comments show that many secondary schools are actively promoting contacts with parents through organizations that go by various names, such as parent-teacher associations, fathers clubs, educational associations, and home-school councils. Some communities take pride in this association of school and home, others incline to think it a waste of time, and still others find that high school students are unfriendly to the association of their parents with teachers in such organizations. The general pattern, however, is one of active concern to establish close relations be-

tween teachers and parents.

7. Replies to item number 9 reveal that a large number of school systems are planning to strengthen school-community relations. If the plans mentioned in the comments are fulfilled, these communities will find schools giving increased attention to good public relations through the radio, press, service clubs, churches, and the Chamber of Commerce. Communications with parents and other laymen will be more convincing and more courteous. Students will participate more widely in all kinds of community activities open to them; moreover, this participation will be more and more viewed as an essential part of the curriculum.

#### HINTS FOR HEALTHY SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

**R**EADING between the lines of respondents' comments, the writer judges the following conditions to be characteristic of flourishing school-community relations, and their absence to be characteristic of poor relations.

1. There is a clear concept of the school as a social agency with responsibilities reaching far beyond the classroom.

2. The community recognizes its obligation to help vitalize the classroom program.

3. There is a give-and-take relationship between leaders of the school and other community activities.

4. The faculty deliberately considers means of cultivating close relations with civic affairs, and makes careful preparation for developing them in the light of the total school program.

5. Pupils are encouraged to explore their communities and come to look upon this activity as an integral part of the educational process.

6. Flexibility marks the organization of the daily school schedule so as to accommodate trips, interviews, and the like.

7. The general public accepts and encourages this kind of educational venture as a means of breaking down the barriers which have long separated not only the ivory tower but the public school classroom from the economic, political, and social life of the world. All concerned feel that the school-community approach, supplementing traditional approaches, makes a dynamic contribution to citizenship-training; that the resources thereby placed at the disposal of the teacher are greater than any one teacher or the school by itself could possibly muster.

# Notes and News

## NCSS 30th Annual Meeting

The National Council for the Social Studies will hold its 30th Annual Meeting in Minneapolis, Minnesota, November 23-25, 1950. The Hotel Nicollet will serve as the headquarters hotel and will house the meetings and exhibit. Make your plans now to attend this important meeting of your professional organization. Mrs. Leona Winner, Maxfield School, St. Paul, is chairman of local arrangements and Myrtle Roberts, first vice-president of the NCSS, Woodrow Wilson High School, Dallas, Texas, is in charge of building the program. They will be looking forward to greeting you in Minneapolis.

## Out-of-Print Publications Needed

A number of National Council publications are out of print and there is some demand for these publications. If you have any of the publications listed below which you no longer need, please notify Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6. If you wish, you may simply send any of these publications to the NCSS.

- Bulletin No. 4 (1929) *The Management of the Reading Program in the Social Studies*, W. G. Kimmel.  
Seventh Yearbook (1936) *Education Against Propaganda*, Elmer Ellis, Editor.  
Ninth Yearbook (1938) *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies*, Ruth West, Editor.  
Tenth Yearbook (1939) *In-Service Growth of Social Studies Teachers*, Burr W. Phillips, Editor.  
Twelfth Yearbook (1941) *Social Studies in the Elementary School*, William E. Young, Editor.  
Fourteenth Yearbook (1943) *Citizens for a New World*, Erling M. Hunt, Editor.  
Fifteenth Yearbook (1944) *Adapting Instruction in the Social Studies to Individual Differences*, Krug and Anderson, Editors.  
Sixteenth Yearbook (1945) *Democratic Human Relations*, Taba and Van Til, Editors.  
Curriculum Series No. 1 (1939) *The Future of the Social Studies*, James E. Michener, Editor.

## Local Council Publications

Early in February the headquarters office of the National Council for the Social Studies wrote to officers of state and local social studies organizations asking for information about publications published by such groups. It is realized that the list of current officers of such groups is not complete or entirely up to date in the NCSS

office, and some local groups with publications may have been missed. Not all local groups replied to the questionnaire for one reason or another. Therefore, the list of local publications compiled from the questionnaire is not complete. Following is the list of publications compiled from this investigation. Will you help by sending Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, information about the publications of a local social studies group not included in the listing below? It would be greatly appreciated if you could send a copy of the publication itself.

Association of Teachers of Social Studies of New York City  
*A.T.S.S. Bulletin*  
Fred Jacobson, Editor  
Newtown High School  
Elmhurst, New York

Connecticut Social Studies Teachers Association  
*Social Studies Topics*  
Ruth Andersen, Editor  
Norwich Free Academy  
Norwich, Connecticut

Dallas District Council for Social Studies  
(Occasional pamphlet)  
Winnie Nance, Editor  
6127 Victor Street  
Dallas, Texas

Pinellas (Florida) County Council for the Social Studies  
*News Bulletin*  
Le Roy Kaufman, President  
1425 18th Avenue North  
St. Petersburg 6, Florida

Houston Council Teachers of Social Studies  
*First Annual Report 1950*  
Miss Nelda Davis, President  
Albert Sidney Johnston High School  
1906 Cleburne Street  
Houston, Texas

Indiana Council for the Social Studies  
*The Indiana Social Studies Quarterly*  
Robert La Follette, Editor  
Ball State Teachers College  
Muncie, Indiana

Illinois Council for Social Studies  
*The Councilor*  
Charles R. Monroe, Editor  
Department of Social Science  
Chicago Teachers College  
6800 South Stewart Avenue  
Chicago 21, Illinois

## Iowa Council for the Social Studies

*Iowa Councilor*

J. R. Skretting, Editor  
University High School  
Iowa City, Iowa

## Kansas Council for the Social Studies

*Kansas Social Studies Notes*

Miss Marie Olson, Secretary Treasurer  
123 Quinton Avenue  
Topeka, Kansas

## Long Island Social Studies Council

*Newsletter*

Evelyn Harris, President LISSC  
Toaz Junior High School  
Huntington, New York

## Middle States Council for the Social Studies

*Proceedings*

George I. Oeste, Editor  
Germantown High School  
Germantown Avenue at High School  
Philadelphia 44, Pennsylvania

## Minnesota Council for the Social Studies

*The Bulletin*

Naomi A. Fausch, Editor  
2725 Kenwood Avenue  
St. Louis Park, Minnesota

## Missouri Council for the Social Studies

*Missouri Social Studies Bulletin*

W. Francis English, Editor  
University of Missouri  
Columbia, Missouri

## New England Association of Social Studies Teachers

*The New England Social Studies Bulletin*

Colin F. N. Irving, Editor  
Phillips Exeter Academy  
Exeter, New Hampshire

## New York State Council for the Social Studies

*The Citizenship Journal*

Frederick B. Price, Editor  
Central High School  
Van Hornesville, New York

## North Carolina Council for the Social Studies

*Bulletin* (irregular)

C. M. Clarke, Executive Secretary  
School of Education  
University of North Carolina  
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

## Texas Council for the Social Studies

*Social Studies Texan*

Alberta Baines, President  
Houston Independent School District  
1500 Louisiana Street  
Houston 3, Texas

## Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies

*Wiscouncilor*

Roy W. Oppegard, Editor  
Junior High School  
Eau Claire, Wisconsin

## Louisiana

Miss Ruth M. Robinson, Supervisor of Social Studies, Elementary Schools, Cleveland, Ohio, and newly elected member of the Board of Directors of the National Council for the Social Studies, spent the week of March 13 speaking at a series of meetings of social studies groups in Louisiana. The itinerary for these meetings was arranged through NCSS headquarters office with the assistance of local personnel in each meeting place. Following are the places where meetings were held with Miss Robinson and the name of the person who assumed responsibility for local arrangements: Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston, Lorimer E. Storey; Northwestern State College, Natchitoches, M. T. Cheves; Louisiana State University and East Baton Rouge Parish School Board, William M. Smith; and Southeastern Louisiana State College, Hammond, Roy E. Hyde.

Many readers of this note about these meetings held in Louisiana will notice that the name of Mrs. May Lee Denham is missing. It is with deep regret that we announce the sudden passing of Mrs. Denham on February 16. Mrs. Denham served for many years in the social studies field at Louisiana State University, and was active in social studies organizations in Louisiana and in the National Council for the Social Studies.

## Wisconsin

The Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies held its spring meeting in Madison on April 29 on the theme: "Teaching Current Affairs." The meeting opened with a symposium on "Teaching Current Affairs" chaired by Irene Smith with Ethel Speerschneider, Ruth Cortell and John Hamburg serving as panel members. This was followed by talks by Robert C. Kennedy on "Devices for Teaching Current Affairs," and by Dennis O'Shea on "Reading Maps." At the luncheon meeting, Fred H. Harrington, History Department, University of Wisconsin, spoke on "Current Trends in American Foreign Policy."

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Contributor to this issue: Ruth M. Johnson.



# Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph Adams Brown

## For the Elementary School

Every teacher at the elementary school level, or at least nearly every such teacher, bemoans the lack of supplementary reading materials that are adapted to the reading ability and the interests of their pupils. Some of the materials that are available are so difficult that only the superior readers can enjoy them; many of the available materials are so expensive that they are not often available in large lots.

Row, Peterson and Company (Evanston, Illinois) have recently begun the publication of a series that will go far to solve some of the supplementary reading problems noted in the last paragraph. Titled *REAL PEOPLE*, the Row, Peterson series consists of twenty-four biographical pamphlets. Each pamphlet is thirty-six pages in length, and is very generously illustrated, with some of the illustrations in color. The type is large, the vocabulary could be handled by good students in the third or fourth grade, and would be fine for the very poor readers as high as the eighth grade. Many of the authors and illustrators are well known in the world of children's books.

There are weaknesses—for instance, there are neither indexes nor supplementary reading lists, and it is inevitable, probably, that they should vary in quality and accuracy. Yet, in spite of limitations, this is a very significant series, far superior to anything that is now available, and extremely usable through the elementary grades. The price is another very appealing feature—the booklets sell in lots of six titles, as indicated below, for \$1.86 (net). Thus school systems can afford to buy many sets, and to replace them as they are worn out. The titles, by the groups in which they must be purchased, are:

### GROUP ONE:

- Christopher Columbus*, by Ruth Cromer Weir; illustrated by Henry C. Pitz.  
*Hernando De Soto*, by Vesta E. Condon; illustrated by Manning de V. Lee.  
*La Salle*, by Jeannette Covert Nolan; illustrated by Henry C. Pitz.  
*Captain John Smith*, by Margaret Leighton; illustrated by Harve Stein.  
*Peter Stuyvesant*, by Caroline D. Emerson; illustrated by Grace Paull.  
*Roger Williams*, by Joseph Cottler; illustrated by Jacob Landau.

### GROUP TWO:

- Abigail Adams*, by Ruth Langland Holberg; illustrated by Dorothy Bayley Morse.  
*Benjamin Franklin*, by Frances Fullerton Neilson and Winthrop Neilson; illustrated by Robert Lawson.  
*Thomas Jefferson*, by Joseph Cottler; illustrated by Nedda Walker.  
*John Paul Jones*, by Ruth Cromer Weir; illustrated by Frederick Seyfarth.  
*Father Serra*, by Vesta E. Condon; illustrated by Raffaello Busoni.  
*George Washington*, by Frances Cavanah; illustrated by Janice Holland.

### GROUP THREE:

- Ah-Yo-Ka*, *Daughter of Sequoya*, by Catherine Cate Coblenz; illustrated by Janice Holland.  
*John Jacob Astor*, by Clara Ingram Judson; illustrated by Milo Winter.  
*Daniel Boone*, by Jeannette Covert Nolan; illustrated by Henry C. Pitz.  
*Zebulon Pike*, by Faith Yingling Knoop; illustrated by Armstrong Sperry.  
*Rufus Putnam*, by Josephine E. Phillips; illustrated by Herbert N. Rudeen.  
*Narcissa Whitman*, by Carol Ryrie Brink; illustrated by Samuel Armstrong.

### GROUP FOUR:

- Jane Addams*, by Josephine Blackstock; illustrated by Milo Winter.  
*George Washington Carver*, by Arna Bontemps; illustrated by Cleveland L. Woodward.  
*Thomas Alva Edison*, by Winifred Wise Graham; illustrated by Edward Shenton.  
*James Jerome Hill*, by Clara Ingram Judson; illustrated by Keith Ward.  
*Robert E. Lee*, by Elizabeth Kinloch Lee; illustrated by Milo Winter.  
*Abraham Lincoln*, by Frances Cavanah; illustrated by Herbert N. Rudeen.

Although there are, as mentioned earlier, neither reading lists nor teaching aids, each pamphlet does contain a "picture calendar." These are illustrated time lines that should be effective aids in establishing the chronology of the subject. Many of the pamphlets also contain usable maps.

## Practical Suggestions for Teaching

The series of monographs known as *PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING*, edited by Hollis L. Caswell (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27), are not primarily social studies material. Yet an examination of the ten titles now available will indicate that many of them will be of interest

and considerable value to those of us who teach social studies.

W. B. Featherstone's *Teaching the Slow Learner* (1941, 101 p. 75 cents), the first in the series, is one of the more important. Concerned with the education of the "retarded" youngster, about which the editor remarks that their education "is of major importance to American democracy," the contents will be indicated by listing the chapter headings: "The Slow Learner—Who He Is and What He Is Like," "How To Locate the Slow Learners," "How To Organize for Teaching the Slow Learner," "How To Guide the Activities of Slow Learners," "How To Teach the Fundamental Processes," and "How To Help the Slow Learner with His Personal Problems."

Willard S. Elsbree's *Pupil Progress in the Elementary School* (1943, 86 p. 60 cents) contains a great deal of information that should be part of the stock-in-trade of any good teacher. Here, for example, are discussions of "Promotion in the Elementary School," "Why Teachers Fail Pupils," "The Modern Theory of School Progress," "Classification and Grouping," "Homogeneous Grouping," "Cooperative Teacher-Administrative Studies of the Grouping Problem," "Marks and the Marking System," and "Reporting to Parents."

Eleanor C. Delaney's *Latin America: A Source Book of Instructional Materials* (1943, 67 p. 60 cents) is the title that is most closely related to the work of the social studies teacher. In his introduction, Dean Caswell notes that "It is difficult to estimate just what children of elementary and junior high school age can accomplish in intercultural understanding. However, it is perfectly clear that they develop many unwarranted and unsound conceptions and this suggests that a positive approach may well be tried. The materials provided herein provide a source upon which teachers may draw for suggestions as to how experiences involving Latin America may be made interesting and worth-while for children. Mrs. Delaney is a classroom teacher of wide experience who has drawn these materials out of her actual work with children. They should be highly suggestive to teachers who wish to guide children in an adventure in intercultural understanding."

Because of its value to social studies teachers, and to indicate the wide variety of materials and suggestions that it contains, the complete table of contents is listed:

#### INTRODUCTION

**CONTRIBUTIONS OF CHILDREN TO THE GOOD NEIGHBOR POLICY:** Adequate and accurate information; better understanding of and respect for the people; increased awareness of the interdependence of the Americas; a loyalty to the democratic way of life; improved social adjustment.

**INTERESTS AND CONCERNS OF CHILDREN WHICH FURNISH LEADS TO ACTIVITY:** Leads within the community; intrinsic interests of children; specialized interests or hobbies of children.

**SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES FOR CHILDREN:** Arithmetic activities; fine and industrial arts activities; health and physical education activities; language arts activities; music activities; science and nature study activities; social studies activities; references for activities.

**MATERIALS FOR CHILDREN:** Part One—reading materials; Part Two—audio-visual aids.

**BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR TEACHERS:** Definition of Latin America; pan-American friendship and cooperation; general features of Latin America; natural resources; the people of Latin America; trade and commerce in Latin America; teacher references for background.

Jean Betzner's *Exploring Literature with Children* (1943, 74 p. 60 cents) has at least marginal interest for many social studies teachers. The areas considered are: "Children Need Literature," "A School's Resources for Teaching Literature," "Exploring Literature at School," "The Teacher's Equipment," and "Developing the Form of Evaluation."

Social studies teachers who are intensely interested in the improvement of evaluation at the elementary school level will wish to read Ruth Strang's *Reporting to Parents* (1948, 105 p. 95 cents). Professor Strang covers the following subjects: "Goals and Guideposts," "Present Practice and Problems," "Improvement by Cooperative Action," "Sources of Understanding," "Joint Responsibility in Reporting," and "Parents' Use of Reports."

Other titles in the series are:

Katherine E. D'Evelyn, *Individual Parent-Teacher Conferences* (1945, 99 p. 75 cents).

Charles K. Arey, *Science Experiences of Elementary Schools* (1942, 99 p. 95 cents).

Gerald S. Craig, *Science in Childhood Education* (1944, 86 p. 60 cents).

Gertrude Driscoll, *How to Study the Behavior of Children* (1945, 84 p. 60 cents).

Roma Gans, *Guiding Children's Reading Through Experiences* (1943, 86 p. 60 cents).

# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

## Film of the Month

*Circus Day in Our Town.* 20 minutes; sale, \$70; rental, \$4. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

The film selected for special review this month is especially timely and should find a warm welcome in primary school social studies classes. *Circus Day in Our Town* sparkles with the excitement and drama of "the greatest show on earth." It has a documentary quality which will make the pulse of the most sophisticated beat a little faster. It's almost like being a kid again and watching the circus come in.

There stands the crowd along the railroad tracks in the gray dawn. The circus train rolls in and everyone lends a hand in unloading the flat cars. The roustabouts carry the tent poles to the fair grounds. The elephants trot through the streets of the town. The bustle begins to take shape as the canvas rises, stakes are driven, and painted side-show fronts go up.

Now the side shows begin. The sword-swallower gives a brief performance and the crowds go to see the "freaks." In the meantime the clowns are making up backstage. Soon it is time for the "big show" to begin. Act after act goes on. We see dog acts, trapeze artists, skaters, horse training, aerial ballets, bareback riders, tight-wire acts, elephant acts, and the grand finale, "the human cannon-ball."

*Circus Day in Our Town* is a camera-eye view of a circus. Nothing has been staged. The show moves along naturally and all of the color and glamor of the circus have been retained. It should prove a popular, stimulating, and challenging film for the pupils in the lower grades.

## Recent 16-mm. Sound Films

Athena Films Inc., 165 West 46th Street, New York 16.

*The Quiet One.* 67 minutes; rental: one day, \$40; full week, \$80. The prize winning documentary film about the rehabilitation of a problem child is now available on 16-mm. film. The boy in *The Quiet One* happens to be a Negro, but the chief factor in his becoming a problem child was that he had problem parents, a situation that knows no color line. The film has terrific pathos and drama, yet it is documentary in treatment and educational in its message.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

*Every Drop To Drink.* 20 minutes; rental, \$2.50. Produced for the Metropolitan Water Board, this film shows how the Board met the problem of supplying pure water to the huge population of London. It describes the processes of purification, the pumping system, and many other details of the water supply system which serves 540 square miles.

*Taken for Granted.* 19 minutes; rental, \$2.50. This film is a comprehensive survey of the work that is done by the local authorities in Middlesex to ensure that sewage is efficiently removed from built-up areas in the interest of public health.

*Once Upon a Time.* 14 minutes; rental, \$2.50. This is the story of Britain's contribution to the art of clock making.

Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.

*Learning from Class Discussion.* 10 minutes; sale: black and white, \$45; color, \$90. A class is discussing "the pros and cons of Big City Life." Differences of opinion show the need for learning facts, weighing evidence, and summarizing. The discussion leads on to further investigation.

*Sparkey, the Colt.* 10 minutes; sale: black and white, \$45; color, \$90. A primary-grade film which shows how colts grow and how they must be trained.

*Friskey, the Calf.* 10 minutes; sale: black and white, \$45; color, \$90. A primary-grade film on the farm and the care of calves.

*Act Your Age.* 13½ minutes; sale, apply. The need for emotional maturity is stressed through a study of James Morgan's behavior in school. Jim, with the principal's help, applies intelligent effort to overcoming or reconditioning his infantile reactions.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois.

*Yours Is the Land.* 20 minutes, color; sale, \$90. Stresses the interdependence of the four great natural renewable resources: soil, water, forests and grasslands, and animal life. Portrays ways in which some of these resources came to be. Exposes the results of man's practice of taking too much from the earth in too short a time. Emphasizes the need for a system of orderly management of our material resources.

*Copper-Mining and Smelting.* 20 minutes, color; sale, \$90. Presents a graphic account of an open-pit copper mine in operation and clearly illustrates the main steps in extracting pure copper from ore. Depicts process of blasting, loading, and disposing of waste rock, loading ore in railroad cars, crushing and washing. Emphasizes work of the miners in their various jobs at the mine.

Flory Films Inc., 303 East 71st St., New York 21.

*Alaska: Global Crossroads.* 11 minutes; rental, \$2.00. The new geographical importance of Alaska in the air age is surveyed together with its industries, peoples, and problems. Fishing, canning, lumbering, mining, and fur farm-



ing are highlighted as well as the racial, governmental, and health problems of the territory.

*Coal Country.* 18 minutes; rental: color, \$5.50; black and white, \$3.50. This story of surface and underground mining shows coal coming from a rich vein in West Virginia. The techniques of blasting and strip mining are contrasted with methods used underground.

International Film Foundation, Inc. 1600 Broadway, New York 19.

*Bread and Wine.* 16 minutes; sale, \$80. Deals with Italian agriculture and the "mezzadria" system of Italian farming. Shows the harvest of grapes, the cultivation of crops, the making of bread, the routine life of the farmers.

*Pacific Island.* 18 minutes; sale, \$100. A documentary on the peoples of a coral island in the Marshalls. The inhabitants of the island are seen building a boat, weaving baskets, fishing, and hunting.

McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 West 42nd St., New York 18.

**MARRIAGE.** A series of five sound motion pictures and five silent filmstrips correlated with Henry A. Bowman's *Marriage for Moderns* (1948).

*This Charming Couple.* 19 minutes; sale, \$90; filmstrip, \$3.50. Follows the theme that too many marriages are based on the false ideals of "romantic" love. The couple fail to evaluate each other's good qualities and shortcomings in a realistic fashion.

*Marriage Today.* 22 minutes; sale, \$110; filmstrip, \$3.50. A dramatic treatment of the ideals and goals of adult love. Follows two couples who have made their marriages work through clear analysis of their mutual aims and cooperation in striving to achieve them.

*Choosing for Happiness.* 14 minutes; sale, \$75; filmstrip, \$3.50. Need for self-analysis and less desire to change others.

*It Takes All Kinds.* 20 minutes; sale, \$95; filmstrip, \$3.50. For a happy marriage, two personalities must mesh—complement each other. This film shows a series of young people, each reacting to an identical, tense situation, and each disclosing the essential pattern of his or her personality.

*Who's Boss?* 16 minutes; sale, \$80. Follows a couple who have difficulty adjusting to marriage and working out a real partnership.

United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29.

*From Bristles to Brushes.* 30 minutes, free loan. Explains the sources of bristle, hair, wire, fibre, and cotton which go into the common brush. Traces the various steps in their manufacture.

## Filmstrips

Audio-Visual Associates, Box 243, Bronxville 8, New York.

*The Races of the Union of South Africa.* 45 frames, free. Presents a study of the complex racial composition of the population of the Union of South Africa and the ways of life of its peoples. Sponsored by the Union of South Africa Government Information Office.

*The Union of South Africa.* 45 frames, free. A description of the land and the people is furnished in an interesting series of pictures.

Bailey Films, Inc., 2044 North Berendo, Hollywood 27, Calif.

*The People of Norway.* Set of four colored filmstrips on city life, rural life, culture, and industries. Price per set, \$24.

*Water Supply.* 60 frames; color, \$9.00; black and white, \$4.50. How water is obtained in different parts of the country.

*Circus People.* 40 frames; color, \$6.00; black and white, \$3.00. How the people who work for the circus carry out their duties.

Flory Films, Inc., 303 East 71st St., New York 21.

*Picture Stories of Ancient Egypt.* 65 frames, \$3.00. Pictures of everyday life, showing food, clothing, shelter, work, and play.

*Picture Stories of Ancient Greece.* 65 frames, \$5.00. How the Greeks worshipped, dressed, ate, and played.

*Picture Stories of Ancient Rome.* 70 frames, \$3.00. Examples of Roman construction, costumes, description of work, play, and government.

*Picture Stories of Knights and Castles.* 70 frames, \$3.00. Pictures from manuscripts and early drawings show castles, courts, economy, food, buildings, armor, and costumes.

Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago 4.

*You and Your Mental Abilities.* 51 frames, \$3.00. High school and college students will learn from this filmstrip the Thurstone primary mental-abilities theory. It will help them to understand their own mental ability patterns better.

Stillfilm, Inc., 171 S. Los Robles Ave., Pasadena 5, Calif.

*Paddle-to-the-Sea.* A series of four color filmstrips, \$4.00 per reel, \$12 per set. Tells the complete story of how an Indian boy's dream of travel came true by his sending a little carved figure in a canoe from Nipigon, Canada, through the Great Lakes and down the St. Lawrence River to the Sea. Emphasizes the geography and industries of the Great Lakes area.

Reel 1: Paddle is made and launched; goes through a sawmill.

Reel 2: Travels through Lake Superior area; sees granaries, ore boats, and fishermen.

Reel 3: Goes through the locks on a freighter and travels through Lake Michigan and Lake Huron; sees ore boats unloaded.

Reel 4: Paddle wanders through Lake Ontario and travels down the St. Lawrence River to the sea.

## What's New?

A full-fledged projecting planetarium for school use is offered for sale by P. D. Windrem and Associates, Lakeport, California. The planetarium consists of a transparent, plastic sphere with the world star chart printed on its inside surface. A light throws the sky onto a screen just as it would appear from any place on earth at any given time. The globe is 14 inches in diameter and constellations and 55 navigational stars are named on the globe to facilitate identification. The planetarium is offered to schools at \$110 f.o.b.

The actual voices of 24 great historic figures

speak again, clearly and unmistakably, through educational recordings on magnetic tape. Recorded originally by Thomas A. Edison on wax cylinders, the voices have been amplified and modernized and are now available from Educational Services, 1702 K Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Each program contains dramatized incidents in the lives of outstanding Americans and is climaxed by their own voices. "Voices of Yesterday," as the series is called, includes the voices of William Gladstone, Florence Nightingale, Grover Cleveland, William McKinley, William Jennings Bryan, William Howard Taft, Thomas Edison, Sarah Bernhardt, Andrew Carnegie, and a number of others. Each program costs \$4.50 and lasts about 15 minutes.

Send 10 cents to the Sales and Circulation Section, United Nations, Lake Success, New York, for a poster, 8½ x 11 inches, illustrating the flags of the 59 member nations in full color. The poster also contains a copy of the official United Nations flag.

The Stanley Bowman Co., 513 West 166th St., New York 23, distributes sixteen individual sets of 24 color slides each covering a separate country of Latin America. A teacher's guide is included with each set of 2 x 2-inch slides. Each set of 24 slides sells for \$15; the complete series of 16 sets costs \$225. The countries covered are Honduras, El Salvador, Colombia, Ecuador, Dominican Republic, Peru, Haiti, Venezuela, Chile, Brazil, Cuba, Guatemala, Argentina, Panama, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica.

"You and Your Security" is a series of 13 recorded programs originally broadcast over a national network to explain Old Age and Survivors Insurance. Secondary schools and colleges wishing to borrow the recordings for classroom use may make arrangements for getting the set on a temporary loan basis from the local social security office.

Write for a copy of Denoyer-Geppert's (5235-5259 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40) new map catalog. It contains a number of new maps as well as a complete selection of old reliable maps. Of special interest is a new school map of Oklahoma which rounds out a series of state maps covering every state and section of our nation. Elementary teachers will be much interested in a

simplified world map with both land and water areas on a scale of 400 miles to the inch. This map is a gem of simplicity, showing only that which the youngster needs to see at this stage of his geographic education—the continents and their relations, the important countries, the principal cities. Another interesting item in this catalog is a new geography atlas with 32 full-color maps and much useful information which retails at \$1.25. Copies of the catalog are sent free upon request.

## Helpful Articles

- Albright, Roger. "Epics of History for Our Schools." *See and Hear* 5:10, 31; February 1950. A summary of the National Council for the Social Studies audio-visual project for editing feature-length films with historical content for classroom use.
- Brimley, Ralph W. "Bulletin Boards for Good Public Relations." *The Nation's Schools* 45:73; April 1950. A school bulletin board placed in a courthouse corridor keeps the public informed as to what the schools are doing.
- Browender, Ross. "The School with 150,000 Pupils." *The Nation's Schools* 45:75-78; April 1950. Describes the Wisconsin School of the Air, now in its nineteenth year of broadcasting.
- Emerson, R. W. "Television's Peril to Culture." *The American Scholar* 19:137-40; Spring 1950. Discusses the idea that "Each new development in the art of communication seems to have broadened the base of culture on the one hand and to have vulgarized the arts on the other."
- Gode, Marguerite. "Fun with Corrugated Paper." *American Childhood* 25:38; April 1950. Suggestions for constructing farm buildings for a primary-grade project.
- Harvill, Harris. "We Visualize the Social Studies." *See and Hear* 5:11-13; February 1950. Expresses the conviction that social studies teachers must learn to make the most efficient use of audio-visual materials if their teaching is to have real meaning.
- Johnston, Eric. "Motion Pictures and Education." *The Educational Forum* 14:261-66; March 1950. How the motion picture can be used as an instrument for greater moral literacy, for a greater faith in democracy.
- Korey, Ruth Anne. "The Bulletin Board as a Useful Visual Aid." *The Grade Teacher* 67:16, 99; April 1950. Bulletin boards, says the author, are never static, they are a constant reflection of the work of the class. Many practical suggestions concerning labels, headings, and arrangements are included.
- Rowe, Benjamin. "The Educator Looks at Television." *The Social Studies* 41:108-11; March 1950. Stresses the advantages of television in social studies classrooms.
- Tyrell, William G. "Understanding China and the Near East Through Audio-Visual Materials." *See and Hear* 5:17-19; February 1950. Lists and discusses films on China, Japan, India, the Philippines, and Southeast Asia.

# Book Reviews

SOUTHERN POLITICS IN STATE AND NATION. By V. O. Key, Jr., with the assistance of Alexander Heard. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1949. xxvi + 675 p. \$6.00.

Several years ago the Bureau of Public Administration of the University of Alabama concluded that its studies were unduly restricted. Hence, on the ground that politics constituted the setting in which public administration functioned and which in large measure determined its character, it was decided to broaden the scope of investigation to include that field. Since it was realized that a study of contemporary Southern politics, to have meaning and validity, must cover a broad area and involve intensive research, the problems of finance and direction were immediately confronted. Fortunately a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation took care of the first problem, and the loan of Professor V. O. Key, Jr., by the Johns Hopkins University provided able direction.

The method worked out by Professor Key and his associates was the combination of such basic data as election statistics, statutes, constitutions, party rules, court decisions, and newspaper reports with information obtained by interview of key officials and informed citizens of the various Southern states. All-in-all over a period of fifteen months 538 interviews were held in eleven states. To encourage fullness of expression, persons interviewed were assured of anonymity, but the reader who is well acquainted with local persons and views can identify some of the witnesses. The results of the interview technique were most gratifying. Information provided by people possessed of first-hand knowledge of political processes afforded valuable insight into local practices, and give new shading and meaning to data gathered from other sources. More than that, the comments of these witnesses and participants provided human interest material which Professor Key skillfully utilized for enhancing readability. The final product of this unique inquiry into contemporary regional institutions and processes reflects great credit on all who had a hand in the project. The book contains valuable information for readers of all types, and especially for social scientists.

The volume is divided into five parts. In part one each of the eleven states which composed

the Southern Confederacy is examined in detail. Part two is devoted to the influence of Southern representatives in national politics. In part three the machinery of the one party system is discussed, with special attention to the workings of the primary system. Parts four and five are concerned with voters and voting with particular emphasis on the poll tax, the literacy test, and other modes of restriction.

Although Professor Key and his associates found within the frame of the one party system, much diversity in organization and practice throughout the South, with Virginia and Florida commonly representing the extremes, the most impressive result of their investigation is the similarity, the consistency, of the pattern as one passes from state to state. The primary determinant in the Southern political scheme is the Negro, and the backbone of Southern political unity—"the hard core of the political South"—is comprised of those areas in which Negroes constitute from a third to three-fourths of the population. The whites of the black belts, conservative generally in economics as well as in politics, while a relatively small minority, have proved their mastery repeatedly by rallying other elements to their position, as in the crisis of the Civil War, and staving off radical movements, such as Populism, born in less conservative white sections. "Red neck" spokesmen such as Bilbo, Vardaman, and Talmadge have commonly baited the conservatives to attract the yeoman vote, but once in office, they have usually deemed it necessary, in the interest of financial support, to be conservative in practice, to play ball with the planter-business combination, and, in effect, to accept the domination of the conservative group. The most conspicuous exception to this rule was Huey Long, who maintained himself by exacting tribute from the interests and who carried through his promises to do something for the lower classes who voted him into office.

The one-party system and domination by a conservative minority seem destined to indefinite perpetuation; yet signs of change are visible on the horizon. Among these are: a slowly but visibly increasing liberalism in racial attitudes, especially in peripheral states such as North Carolina, Florida, Texas, and Arkansas, and in the South's large towns and cities; thinning of



the Negro element through migration; urbanization; and the coming of industry. All of these movements are regarded by Professor Key as threats to traditional patterns and hence as portents of a better day, politically and otherwise. But those who hope for a sudden transformation, wrought by external pressures, will find little support in the pages of this study. Salvation, if it comes, must come slowly, and mainly from within.

BELL I. WILEY

Emory University

LABOR IN AMERICA. By Harold U. Faulkner and Mark Starr. Revised edition. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949. xiii + 338 p. \$2.00.

Labor unions are here to stay. From a membership of two and a half million in 1932, they have grown to over sixteen million, and they are still growing. Their impact on our national life has become more and more pervasive. As never before, the role of organized labor in our society is one of the chief problems facing the people of the United States.

A comprehension of the labor problem is therefore essential if we are to react to it intelligently, and not merely on the basis of prejudices. *Labor in America* is an excellent introduction to this problem. It is a rather short, well-written, and interesting book. It describes the origin of the labor problem, the birth of the labor movement in the United States and its development since 1789, the structure and functions of our unions at present, and the unions' attempt to carry out these functions.

Professor Faulkner and Mr. Starr address their book to the high school student. They have given him first-rate material for outside reading and for special reports on the labor problem in an attractive "package." The print is large and clear; the illustrations are striking; difficult words are defined in parentheses; and each chapter ends with a list of varied, worth-while, and challenging suggestions for further study, and investigation, and other activities.

*Labor in America* is an admirable book not only for students; the busy teacher can profit from it even more than his pupil.

PHILLIP LOCKER

Stuyvesant High School  
New York City

PRESS, FILM, RADIO. A Report of the Commission on Technical Needs Following Surveys in Fourteen Countries and Territories. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1949. 296 p. \$1.20. Distributed in the United States by Columbia University Press, Morningside Heights, New York.

In 1947 Unesco first undertook the task of surveying the communications facilities in war-devastated countries. In that year twelve countries were surveyed. In 1948 a second survey was made in seventeen additional countries and territories. This book contains the results of the third survey made in 1949. The countries treated here are Finland, Sweden, Switzerland, Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia, Lebanon, Turkey, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, and Paraguay. In all some forty-three countries have been surveyed to date and recommendations have been made concerning the improvement of communication facilities.

In making these surveys, Unesco workers first draw up a questionnaire. In this survey particular emphasis was laid on the educational film and school and educational broadcasting. Field workers then went into the various countries to discover their technical needs, to collect and analyze data on obstacles to the free flow of information, and to gather items which could be of value to other departments of Unesco. Pages 65 to 296 of the report contain summaries of the findings in each of the countries surveyed.

Probably of greatest interest to the general reader is the portion of the report which deals with the specific recommendations of the Commission on Technical Needs. A sampling of these recommendations will indicate the trend of the thinking of this group. The Press and News Agencies Commission noted that among the principal obstacles are those of a lack of professional training in journalism, shortages in many cases of raw materials and equipment, as well as communication difficulties. The problem of illiteracy plays a considerable role in at least eight of the fourteen countries, and thus limits the number of readers and hinders the development of the press. Among the many recommendations made by the Commission is one for the establishment of journalism schools and the exchange of teachers and professional journalists.

The Film Commission strongly recommended an up-to-date international information and news service so as to make possible better evaluation,

distribution, and use of educational films and filmstrips. A number of recommendations were also made to stimulate production of educational films in the various countries. The Radio Commission was strong in its recommendation that educational broadcasting be encouraged in those countries where teaching is not yet systematically organized for all classes of the population and where cultural resources are inadequate. The general Commission believes that these reports could most usefully find a place in the libraries of all departments of journalism, schools of social studies, and other institutions concerned with the problems and techniques of communication.

With this conclusion the reviewer heartily concurs.

WILLIAM H. HARTLEY

State Teachers College  
Towson, Maryland

**TOWARDS WORLD UNDERSTANDING.** A series of booklets issued by Unesco under the following titles: (1) *Some Suggestions on Teaching About the United Nations and Its Specialized Agencies*; (2) *The Education and Training of Teachers*; (3) *Selected Bibliography* (in preparation); (4) *The United Nations and World Citizenship*; (5) *In the Classroom with Children Under Thirteen Years of Age*; (6) *The Influence of Home and Community on Children Under Thirteen Years of Age*. Distributed by the International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York. 1949. Numbers 1 and 4, 10 cents each; numbers 2, 5, and 6, 20 cents each.

A new dimension is being added to educational literature by Unesco's general work and more particularly by its international seminars. The five booklets in the general series entitled **TOWARDS WORLD UNDERSTANDING** are unique in the fact that they are the result of group thinking and often group writing by educators from many countries. These documents have been put together by members of the Secretariat of Unesco and edited by them, but they are essentially "working papers" prepared by participants in the seminars. They are the equivalent, on an international scale, of the many booklets which have been issued by workshops in the United States over the past few years.

The result of this manner of writing is a certain unevenness and lack of unity in the publications. But this is inevitable, and the wonder

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is that the series is as good in view of the complications of group preparation by persons of widely divergent background. The series should be a welcome addition to educational literature in the United States and teachers should look forward with expectation to the other titles in the series. The next four are already in preparation and will bear these titles: (3) *Selected Bibliography*; (7) *Some Suggestions on the Teaching of Geography*; (8) *A Teachers' Guide to the Declaration of Human Rights*; and (9) *Some Suggestions on the Teaching of World History*.

This series of booklets should appeal to many persons and for quite different reasons. Some will be interested in the subject matter contained in them, such as the essay by Dr. Ruth Benedict on "The Study of Cultural Continuities" in the Pamphlet, *The Influence of Home and Community*; or the lecture by Miss D.E.M. Gardener of the Department of Child Development of the University of London Institute of Education, on "Child Growth and Development as a Subject of Study by Teachers," contained in the booklet on *The Education and Training of Teachers*.

Others will be intrigued by the light these publications throw on cultural and educational

differences throughout the world. They will note such small items as the use of the words "educationists," school "timetables," and "children's hostels"; and such large items as the difficulties of "Introducing the United Nations to Schools of the Arab World," a joint statement by an Egyptian and a Syrian educator, published in the booklet on *The United Nations and World Citizenship*. Or they will read the section on "The Teaching of Foreign Languages" as presented in the pamphlet *In the Classroom with Children Under Thirteen Years of Age* and perhaps receive a start when they see the statement that "To understand a foreign language, to speak it, to read it and to write it correctly are four different things. *All that can be expected of very young children is that they speak and understand a language*" (italics by the reviewer).

Still others will appreciate the series as it demonstrates the growing usefulness of the seminar-workshop as a technique in international education. It would be interesting and helpful to have one booklet devoted to this topic, with material drawn from the various seminars, including reports by the directors and by committees of participants. In the meantime, these booklets refer directly to this technique in introductory comments; indirectly through pictures, names of participants, and the papers prepared by consultants, lecturers and participants; and also indirectly in the reading one can do between the lines.

Teachers and others interested in education and world affairs should find these booklets intriguing and stimulating and should look forward to the other titles with keen anticipation.

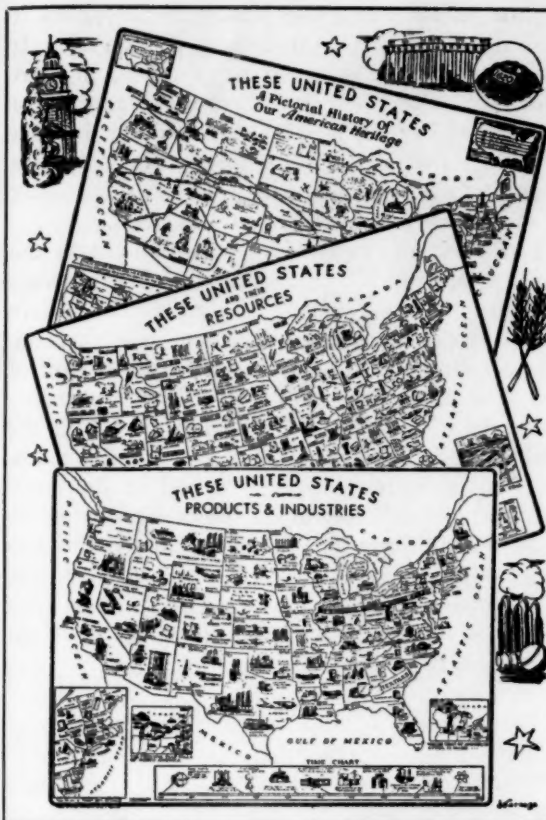
LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

Brooklyn College, New York

**PROPHETS OF DECEIT: A STUDY OF THE TECHNIQUES OF THE AMERICAN AGITATOR.** By Leo Lowenthal and Norbert Guterman. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949. xvii + 164 p. \$2.50.

The purpose of this book is "to discover the social and psychological strains of agitation by means of isolating and describing its fundamental themes." These themes were determined after a meticulous study of writings and speeches of certain well-known agitators. Among the agitators who are quoted in this book are Gerald L. K. Smith, Carl Mote, and Charles Coughlin. Without reciting each of the twenty-one themes,





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the agitators' complaints may be summarized as:  
(1) economic grievances ("Not only are foreigners taking our money, they also threaten our jobs"); (2) political grievances ("like Russia, the United States is suffering from the scourges of internationalism"); (3) cultural grievances ("the Hollywood motion picture industry is being exploited by Russian Jewish Communists"); and (4) moral grievances ("We Gentiles are suckers. While we were praying they had their hands in our pockets").

The following paragraph is from a speech made by Gerald L. K. Smith at St. Louis on March 24, 1944 (p. 28):

"When Harry Hopkins got married, Baruch gave a party for the 'Palace Guard' at the Carlton Hotel, where you need \$100.00 before you can rent a room; and pay \$2 before you can order a cup of coffee. But Mr. Baruch arranged the party, and they were all there: Harry Hopkins, the bride, Mr. Nelson, Mr. Henderson. There were seven kinds of meat served—twenty-two kinds of food, and it had cost Barney Baruch \$122 a plate; and they drank of the vintage of '26. Now, I am no connoisseur of champagne. McCullough of the Post-Dispatch says it is \$20.00

a quart—and if I had a quart of that I might get a good story in the Post-Dispatch tomorrow. (Laughter.) But there isn't any more of that, I understand, now because of the war with France. There was \$2000 served of that drink. There was precious perfume at \$40 a tiny vial to each woman there. You talk about the drunken orgies of history—we expect Capone to live like that, but as long as I am a Christian soul, I will not be governed by a man like that."

The book is well written and is extremely well documented. Appendix I is a record of pro-fascist and anti-semitic statements by agitators quoted in this study. Appendix II is a bibliography of printed source materials arranged according to authors. In addition there is a list of references arranged according to chapters. A topical index is provided.

The book is particularly valuable for those teachers and laymen who wish to gain an insight into the thought patterns of an irrational segment of the American population. The book will serve as a source for propaganda analysis, a classroom activity which is becoming commonplace in our schools and colleges.

Northwestern University

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FOUNDATIONS OF METHOD FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS. By I. N. Thut and J. Raymond Gerberich. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949. x + 493 p. \$4.00.

The study of the methods of instruction is a vital part of the preparation of teachers for secondary schools. Prospective teachers require guidance in developing methods which will aid them in dealing effectively with the developmental needs of adolescents and with the problems involved in achieving the broad objectives of secondary education. The authors of this text have attempted to meet this demand with a comprehensive manual of general secondary school methods.

In the methods courses which are a part of most teacher training programs, this study of method is often concerned almost exclusively with the technical and procedural aspects of teaching children an organized body of content in a routine classroom situation. All too little attention is given to the study of method in the broader sense of facilitating a learning process which must involve the personality of the learner and the requirements of his environment. The attempt which is made in this manual to treat

method in each of these phases distinguishes it from many of its less satisfactory predecessors. It is very comprehensive in its coverage, in Part Two, of the "tricks-of-the-trade" aspect of method. It is definitely forward-looking, in Part One, in its tentative, sometimes rather cautious attempt to help prospective teachers to consider method in its more fundamental aspects.

The very comprehensiveness which marks the authors' approach to the study of method has apparently led to a major weakness. They have found it difficult—and in at least one case impossible—to avoid the use and the repetition of many of the stereotypes and clichés regarding method which so often have interfered with the understanding of method and with creative teaching. An obvious example is found in the treatment of pupil behavior in the classroom as the problem of "discipline." The authors themselves suggest that the term is used in deference to tradition and that their major concern is not with punishment but rather with creating the most effective situation within which learning can take place.

Part Three, which treats special aspects of secondary school teaching, is especially helpful to teachers in general in its wealth of suggestions for new approaches to classroom technique and to curriculum development. In this section, as well as in the others, every effort has been made to include at least some mention of important current research in method. The selected references included with each chapter provide useful guides to more extensive investigation of the variety of problems of method discussed briefly in the text.

ELBERT W. BURR

The University of Chicago Laboratory School

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THE AMERICAN WAY IN COMMUNITY LIFE. By Samuel Steinberg and Daniel C. Knowlton. Boston: Heath and Co., 1948. viii + 408 p. \$1.92.

This book is written as a guide to train adolescent boys and girls in community action. The authors definitely place in the hands of the young people the task of building a better world, especially by banishing "those prejudices and practices which have thus far thwarted the full realization of the American dream." The material and activities cut across all lines affecting human relations in building a "design for living in the American Way." Furthermore the work is based

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on the premise that learning occurs when there are "clear goals, purposeful activities in which the student explores his own power, develops tastes and interests, and builds wholesome attitudes." The community is clearly intended to "furnish a practice ground for acquisition of desirable knowledge and will be a testing ground for its use."

The conduct of affairs for people in their group-living starts with the pupil's community environment and progresses from the cities to counties, towns and villages, to the forty-eight states and the national government. The services of all these imply responsibility and cost which the citizen learns from community study are his to act upon. Concrete problems are used extensively and pointedly to study the machinery in operation. Good public servants who uphold the American ideals are described in accounts of workers from the federal offices to the village school teacher. To the young citizen, the authors recommend many ways of exercising their democratic citizenship not only in rights but in recognition of authority and responsibilities. From this point the young student is finally led to the expression of American ideals in our Constitution with applications to their daily lives. Dreams of a better world and community life are theirs to dream and build—"dreams and visions of a greater and finer America that is to be."

The chapter aids and activities are splendid, covering such factors as vocabulary; recall questions; thought questions; activities "For Those Who Like To Do Things"; service projects "For Those Who Want To Be of Real Service"; and true and false or information questions. Following these are found fine book lists on adolescent reading and experience levels and fine films and visual aids. The illustrations throughout are well chosen to show graphic proportions or comparisons in diagrams and people in action. The entire book is most realistically based on adolescent desire to do and proposes to make wise action an outcome of citizenship training in *The American Way in Community Life*.

ELLA A. HAWKINSON

Hope College, Holland, Michigan

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